The Nation.

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The Week.

Blue Monday will acquire a special terror for the Standard Oil Company if every wash-day is to bring a fresh report against it by the Commissioner of Corporations. This week's is chiefly taken up with the discovery that the Standard sells much cheaper abroad than at home. Commissioner Smith's eagerness in announcing this is very like the anxiety of the small boy to run and tell his mother the great news, when he heard that a baby sister had arrived. The American people had suspected as much. When Mr. Rockefeller told them how foolish it would be to interfere with his effort to "conquer the markets of the world," they had a pretty shrewd notion that he wished to bleed them in order to do it. But what a powerful tariff-revision argument Commissioner Smith unwittingly supplies! All that he alleges of the nefarious Standard practice in exacting the uttermost farthing from the helpless American consumer, in order to give the foreigner cheap goods, is as true of many protected manufacturers. It has been proved—nay, admitted—of the Steel Corporation. Now, the extortions of the Standard could probably be little checked by revising the tariff; but those protected industries which hide behind high duties, while they skin their countrymen but sell cheap abroad, could be got at by a Congress or an Administration that dared lay a hand upon the tariff. Yet the President is standing as pat as mum.

Massachusetts appears to be the only State just now in which political enthusiasm is able to defy the hot weather. To the Republican clambake at which Mr. Lodge outlined the issues of the year, the Democrats have replied with an outing at Nantasket, where Henry M. Whitney, the probable candidate for Governor, and other Democratic leaders, paid their respects to the Senator-boss. "Massachusetts has played second-fiddle long enough to the interests of Pennsylvania," said Mr. Whitney, "and if I do not mistake the drift of public sentiment, she desires to be recorded in favor of tariff revision, not years hence, but now." If there is a certain sameness in Massachusetts' campaigning, the responsibility really lies with the Republican statesmen who invented that automatic, interchangeable, indestructible tariff argument that revision is impossible just before the Congressional or Presidential elections, because of the disturbing effect it would have on business, while in the off-years there is no time. Senator Lodge is just as enthusiastic a tariff reformer as of old, his only condition being that such revision shall be conceived and executed throughout by Republicans; but he can see no possible chance to carry out this reform before 1909. In spite of the admission by other leading Republicans that Massachusetts could not have been carried the last time except upon the issue of prompt tariff revision, vague "State issues" are all that the Bay State voters are offered this year. One of these, the abuse of Moran and his following, Mr. Whitney properly characterizes as "not only undignified, but silly," adding of Gov. Guild: "He knows perfectly well, or ought to know, that Mr. Moran and his followers honestly purpose to promote and not to destroy social and business conditions."

Mr. Gompers on the telegraphers' strike is really magnificent. "I know nothing of its merits," he says, but its very declaration "removes from the scope of the inquiry an investigation as to its merits." Therefore, he adds, "we are determined to give the operators our best support." Those, however, who are unable to rise to this height of regarding strikers as infallible, will insist upon asking what are the merits of the strike. Few or none can they find. It appears to have been an unusually causeless and headless strike. Somebody, unauthorized, blew a whistle, the operators went out amid cheering, and then the union's officers began telegraphing each other, "What *are* our grievances, anyhow?" The whole thing was a bad case of mismanagement, even from the trades-union point of view. The men disregarded their own officers. Without any warning, or any statement of grievances or demands, they abruptly quit their work. As if further to forfeit all claim to public sympathy, they induced operators not in the employ of the Western Union to strike, in sympathy. The temporary crippling of the news service, by such means, the very officials of the telegraphers' union regarded as a blunder, and tried to prevent. But the whole strike appears to have been most haphazard, and as much in defiance of the rules of organized labor as of common sense.

The announcement that Congressman Burton of Ohio will not accept again the chairmanship of the House Committee on Rivers and Harbors is an admission by one of the ablest men in Congress of the impossibility of combining activity in the broader departments of statesmanship with continual detailed work upon local concerns. Since Mr. Dingley gave his name to the last tariff law, no Congressional chairman has been more thoroughly identified with the work of his committee than Mr. Burton. He did much to bring system into the appropriations for river and harbor work, which years of eager log-rolling had left in chaos. There are fewer sneers at the "pork-barrel," and less deserved than of old. A member must possess in a rare degree the confidence of his constituents before he can avowedly give his first concern to national and not purely local interests. To be an energetic errand-boy for constituents is still the shortest cut to popularity. The Illinois Congressman, Mr. Rodenberg, who secured the largest sum for his district out of the last public buildings bill, received something very like a Roman triumph on his return home. Mr. Burton, however, has more reason for pride in the fact that the Democrats of his district nominated no candidate against him last year.

The navy uniform is likely to follow before long the rest of the old-time panoply of war. A board of officers has been appointed to recommend changes, and the prevailing opinion is hostile to the present costume. It is held by some officers that the "conspicuous attire" of our seamen has done much to prevent enlistments in the navy. Surely there is nothing in heaven or earth like the sailor suit. Pancake hat, enormous collar, low-necked blouse, and flaring trousers make a uniform that, had it not been made honorable by tradition, would be simply ridiculous. Of course, the reasons which dictated the general changes in army uniforms do not exist to such a degree in the world's navies. No commander of a battleship supposes that he can elude the enemy by dressing his crew in khaki. But the design of the existing uniform is so much better suited to the comic-opera chorus and the small boys in the park than to the men who care for costly, intricate, and dangerous fighting machines, that it will be proper enough to leave it to the other worthy wearers. If clothes make the man, it is hard to see how anything can be expected of the sailor to-day but chanteys, roystering, and hornpipe-dancing.

The important point of the decision of Judge Dowling of the Supreme Court in New York, in the suit of Macy & Co. against the Publishers' Association, is scarcely given in the matter innocently furnished in the press. It is true that the publishers cannot now prevent a department store from selling non-copyrighted books at any price the fancy may dictate, but their right to insist upon a minimum price for copyrighted

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books is maintained. It was, indeed, upheld by the decision of the Court of Appeals, and Judge Dowling simply follows that. Books of which the copyright has expired may be treated as so many commodities; and price agreements in respect to them will be regarded as in restraint of trade. But copyrighted books stand on a different basis; and we may add that, as George Haven Putnam has pointed out, it was chiefly about the protection of copyrighted books that publishers were concerned. Judicial decisions on that point are still somewhat confused; it will probably be necessary in the end to take the matter to the Supreme Court of the United States. As the matter now stands in New York, however, booksellers and authors are within their legal rights in maintaining the agreed price for copyright works.

Arrests, as well as civil prosecutions, are expected to follow the report of the commission appointed by the Pennsylvania Legislature to investigate the State Capitol frauds, and lists are published in advance of the men against whom the findings of the board are directed. The list includes not only Contractor Sanderson and Architect Huston, but several members of the extraordinary Board of Public Grounds and Buildings which, with unlimited access to the Treasury surplus, undertook the furnishing of the new State-house. The name of Gov. Pennypacker, whom no one accuses of personal dishonesty, is not there, nor, of course, is that of State Treasurer Berry, who made the first disclosures of Capitol graft. The attorneys for the commission are said to have recommended thirteen criminal indictments, as well as civil suits for the recovery of more than three millions. These proceedings conform to the magnificent scale of the peculations that occasioned them. But so far as any one "higher up" is concerned, the mystery does not seem to be yet cleared up. As Charles H. Darlington says in the current *World's Work*: "These men were not bosses, big or little. They were favored citizens. Why? . . . Either they were simply the agents to draw the money from the Treasury for some of the big fellows, or else they have rendered such service that their profit of millions is only a fair recompense. The investigation will not be complete until one or the other of these things is developed." The question that ordinary legislative hearings failed to answer, however, criminal trials may yet clear up.

Prince Scipio Borghese, the winner of the Peking to Paris automobile race, who drove his machine some 9,000 miles in sixty-one days, will probably not be allowed to retain his record unchallenged for very long. Already a patriotic and adventurous German has announced his intention to drive a motor car across Africa from the Indian Ocean to the Atlantic. The trip is to be taken in an especially designed car, having, it is reported, wheels four feet in diameter, with enormously wide tires. This raises the rather interesting question, When is an automobile an automobile, and when is it a steam-roller? It is the inevitable result of all attempts to make new inventions do what the laws of nature intended them not to do, that they really lose their identity in the endeavor, and so frustrate our essential purpose. The snowshoe, in order to permit walking on the surface of the water, has to be made so impervious as to become practically a canoe, and so heavy as to make walking on the surface of the water nearly always impossible. The field of domestic economy, as expounded in the household magazines, offers numerous instances. An egg-box writing desk can probably be constructed, but only after subordinating the original egg-box to the added material in the ratio of one to one hundred, and consenting to do most of our writing on the dining-room table. The "specially-constructed" monstrosity, whatever it be, is to the standard article what the professional spirit is to the amateur spirit in athletics.

The airship, like the automobile, is bound to arouse exaggerated hopes for a long time to come. Thus an eminent German military critic protests against the Utopian Jingoes who are beginning to call for fleets of dirigible war balloons as the most suitable means for conquering Britain's girdle of invincible insularity, overrunning France, establishing a world-dominion, etc. This critic points out that the war balloon is still in its experimental stage; that it rises with difficulty and lands with still greater difficulty, and that at the height of a mile and a half it can be assailed with gunfire from the ground. Nevertheless, Germany rejoices at the fact that she has wrested from France the advantage in "air-power" which the latter country has held for a number of years. Even the military statistician who figures you out the fate of battles in advance by balancing knot-speed against knot-speed and weight of broadsides against each other, has turned his attention to the new field. He has discovered that, inasmuch as the French war-balloon La Patrie was up in the air for three hours, while the German ship floated for three hours and a quarter, Germany has a preponderant strength of thirteen as against twelve. It is now open to the psychological-factor school of martial accountants to reply that the French, being an imaginative and even flighty nation, are really stronger in the air than the mere figures would indicate. We await with interest the rise of other "schools" of opinion on aerial warfare—the triple-plated, two hundred-ton aeroplane school, the high-speed, screw-driven, commerce-destroyer school, the cigar-shaped torpedo-boat school, etc.

The outcome of the recent elections for the partial renewal of the *Conseils généraux* in France has been to strengthen the position of the Government and of the policy of "republican defence." The decline in strength of the conservative and reactionary parties steadily goes on. Definite results for 1,298 seats out of the 1,450 that were to be filled show a decrease for Conservatives and Nationalists from 299 to 263, and for the Progressives or conservative Republicans from 184 to 137, but an increase for Radicals, Radical-Socialists, and Socialists from 815 to 898. If these figures may be taken as indicative of the sentiments of the entire electorate, the Government's supporters can be estimated at more than two-thirds of the nation; while if we make the issue one between republicanism and anti-republicanism the former is in a majority by about four to one. The Liberal press takes the elections as a text for emphasizing the permanence of the Third Republic and for insisting that the time has come when Parliament, no longer beset with the fear of monarchist reaction, shall proceed to legislate for the country in a spirit of broad statesmanship. The only source of regret has been the sullen attitude of the disconsolate Midi. Of the three wine-growing departments, Aude witnessed a general strike of voters in ten out of sixteen districts; Pyrénées-Orientales, in one out of eight, and Hérault (containing Montpellier-Béziers), in twelve out of eighteen. Yet the Republican cause encountered no setback; on the contrary, the only Conservative seat in the three departments voted for was captured by a Radical.

There is martial law in part of Ireland, but, strangely enough, it is not Nationalist Connaught or Munster that feels the increased burden of the Sassenach, but Belfast, in Ulster Orangedom, and a stronghold of the Unionist Ascendency party. With the troops patrolling the streets, the conditions in the strike-vexed city are not pleasant to contemplate, either for the Irish Loyalists or the Liberal Ministry. The possibility of actual conflict between the strikers and soldiers is not remote. Should untoward incidents result, public opinion will not go entirely against the members of the Irish constabulary, who have real grievances to complain of. The Nationalist parties of the south ought to regard the Belfast crisis with extreme satisfaction. It not only worries their enemies, the Loyalist M.P.'s, but may not improbably bring them an important accession of strength

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among the working population, sufficient to break the Unionist parliamentary phalanx of Ulster. As a matter of fact, of Belfast's four seats in Parliament, one was captured by a Nationalist in January, 1906, with 4,138 votes, against 4,122 for his Unionist opponent, while another went to a Unionist by less than three hundred majority over the Labor candidate.

In the Moroccan situation one fact would seem to stand out clearly—that German diplomacy has little reason for congratulating itself on the outcome of the policy initiated by the visit of the Emperor at Tangier in 1905. Kaiser and Chancellor must now be bitterly aware that the series of events then set in motion has resulted only in advancing the fortunes of France in Morocco by a decade or more. At present, it is best not to qualify "fortunes" either as good or evil, for time alone will show whether the reduction of Morocco to a French protectorate will repay the cost of such a venture. But, taking it for granted that what the French want is the best for them, their advance in Morocco has now been enormously accelerated. Under the old policy of "pacific penetration," fostered by M. Delcassé, years must have passed before the process of territorial encroachment on the Moroccan hinterland from Algeria and diplomatic pressure at the ports and capital would have precipitated a crisis like the existing one. That the present situation has followed logically from Franco-German strife in Morocco, there can be little doubt. On the one hand the native tribesmen have been stirred to active hostility by the virtual subjection of the Sultan to general European control. On the other hand, they have probably come to believe that in a war against the French, sympathy would not fail to be forthcoming from certain European quarters. But whereas two years ago France, if attacked, would have appeared in the light only of a greedy invader, she holds now the enviable position of acting as the mandatory of Europe. That the crisis will end as it began, with Casablanca, is scarcely possible. Disorders have been reported in other ports. Tangier is declared to be in immediate danger. It is probable that the Clemenceau Cabinet views with no light heart the beginning of an adventure which, if carried through to the end, must prove much more costly than Madagascar, if not than Algeria. Like the latter, Morocco has a population of 3,000,000 Arab nomads, with no lack of prophets and minor Abd-el-Kaders to head a holy war. But Morocco has also a Berber population of some five millions, three times as large as Algeria's; and the conquest of Algeria took twenty years.

There is a kind of periodicity about the reports of activity among the anarchists. Just as they begin to be forgotten, their press agents announce new plans. This month, for example, a convention is to be held in London, with delegates from the Russian Social Revolutionary Party, which contains a fair sprinkling of anarchists. Until lately, these people had their headquarters in Geneva, but were forced to emigrate on account of stringent legislation against them in Switzerland. After reorganizing and strengthening their party, they hope to work more openly and systematically. They will rent a building for headquarters, and will have a printing press of their own from which will issue the papers and books of their propaganda. Most of these wandering social and political fanatics are personally harmless. If they do no good, they do little evil. They are indirectly dangerous, however, by furnishing suggestion and provocation to the ill-balanced enthusiast and the criminal. Geneva is glad to be rid of them, and London will have to watch them.

In his recently published "Secret History of the English Occupation of Egypt," Wilfrid Scawen Blunt tells a weird story of the English representatives at the Berlin Congress. He got the particulars, he says, from a letter written to Lord Lytton at Simla in May, 1879, by a diplomatic colleague who was in Berlin. When the representatives of the Powers assembled, each one was asked to declare that his Government was bound by no secret agreement. Disraeli and Salisbury having been engaged in secret negotiations with the Sultan, were much embarrassed; yet, says Mr. Blunt, "they had not the presence of mind to refuse, and no less than the others formally agreed"; but, he adds, "it must be remembered that both were new to diplomacy." A few weeks later, the text of the private convention concerning Cyprus was published. "Our two plenipotentiaries," says the author, "found themselves confronted with the unexplainable fact that they had perpetrated a gross breach of faith on their European colleagues, and stood convicted of nothing less than a direct and recorded lie." This treachery promised to break up the Conference. Gortchakoff and Waddington threatened to withdraw. The awkward situation was relieved by Bismarck, who had a liking for Disraeli. A compromise was reached by his intervention. Mr. Blunt brings forward no documentary evidence in support of his assertions, and there is a wild improbability about the whole story. Beaconsfield's enemies have often accused him of trickery, but no one has ever thought him a fool. Such *Tendenzschriften* as Mr. Blunt's make amusing reading, but it is not of such stuff that history is made.

New Zealand's Legislature is about to undergo an important transformation through the substitution of an elective Upper House for the present Legislative Council nominated by the Crown. When the process is completed, the New Zealand Parliament will be unique among law-making assemblies. In the first place, the new upper chamber is to be chosen by the House of Representatives. This is an unusual provision in itself, the nearest resemblance being found in France, where the Deputies from every department form part of the electoral assembly that elects the Senators for that department. In New Zealand, women are to be qualified for election to the Upper House, in spite of the fact that they are not eligible to the House of Representatives—an anomaly that grows more striking and more confusing when we find out that they are entitled equally with men to vote for members of the lower chamber. In other words, in the series of three sets of qualifications which lie between the franchise and a seat in the Upper House, women hold the first and third, but not the second. It is conceivable, however, that an influential feminist leader might strike a bargain whereby, in return for supporting a male candidate for the lower chamber, she would receive his vote for a seat in the Upper House. Evidently, the men of New Zealand have not been able to free themselves from the old notion that woman's influence is best exerted in indirect ways.

In his presidential address before the British Medical Association, Dr. Henry Davy discussed "Science in Its Application to National Health." He pointed out the practical bearing of Darwinism on hygiene. Darwin showed "that the only way to maintain any organ or structure of the body in its proper condition of health and development is by a proper and adequate use of it." Consequently, exercise is of vast importance to racial development. We have heard a great deal about the difficulty of recruiting the English army; Dr. Davy finds the cause of physical deterioration in the fact that villages are decaying, while great factory towns are absorbing the population. Easy transportation makes walking less necessary. Labor-saving machines cause disuse of muscles. "Physical culture," said the doctor, "is one of the most pressing questions of the day, for it is the only means of providing a remedy for the prevalent muscular degeneration." Athletics by proxy and sport at one's ease are rapidly exterminating, thinks this doleful observer, that stalwart product of a roast-beef diet which Taine admired, if he did not envy.

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BRYAN AND THE SOUTH.

Signs of growing dislike of Bryan in the Southern States, if not of an active movement to prevent his nomination, are of great political significance. Bryan without the South would be shorn of his power. Without the support of the Southern delegates, he could not control the National Convention; while the loss of the electoral votes of one or two States south of Mason and Dixon's line would make his election, if nominated, impossible. Hence the interest of the question just what is the extent of the anti-Bryan sentiment in the South to-day.

It has doubtless been somewhat exaggerated. Certain travelling newspaper correspondents have tried to make it appear intense and universal. It is not that; but no one can talk with representative Southern men, or read Southern newspapers, without discovering a new attitude towards Bryan; if not hostile, at least no longer friendly. It is not often that one comes upon so blunt an expression of it as in the Mobile *Register*, which says that the Democrats "will have to dump Mr. Bryan." Frequently, however, one finds a tone of marked coldness, with the unconcealed hope that some way may be devised of avoiding another Bryan candidacy. The Houston *Post* remarks that to nominate a man of Mr. Bryan's views would "sacrifice the independent vote," and it adds that, without it, "success will be impossible." That is not what Mr. Bryan would call enthusiastic support. Nor would he be elated by such a chilling utterance as that of the Savannah *Morning News*, which unfeelingly declares: "Here in the South there is a very large number of prominent Democrats who do not think Mr. Bryan would stand much chance of being elected."

When we come to ask for the cause of this remarkable change of feeling in the South, we are not left long in doubt. It is Mr. Bryan's pronouncement in favor of Government ownership of railways that has brought about the revulsion. This has been due, partly, to a sound economic and political instinct. The South still shrinks from paternalism in government—when it doesn't want it. But the chief reason why the South dreads Government ownership of railways is that it might interfere with one phase of dealing with the race problem: in a word, that a Federal law might prevent discrimination against colored passengers. This is frankly stated by the Charleston *News and Courier:*

> It is not with the feelings of Mr. Bryan toward the South, which are undoubtedly friendly, that the South is concerned, but with the sure results that his policy would bring about.
>
> His declaration in favor of Government ownership as an ultimate solution of the transportation question is loaded with ultimate and certain peril to the white race in the South. It should therefore remove Mr. Bryan from further consideration as a possible candidate for President in the minds of those Southern Democrats to whom white supremacy is a matter of some importance.

It is really a poetic retribution which has overtaken Mr. Bryan in this particular. In behalf of the negro he has never publicly raised his voice. Effusive and emphatic he has been in declaiming against the wrongs of the Filipinos, Armenians, Macedonians, and we know not what other oppressed peoples; but negro disfranchisement in the South has never drawn a syllable of protest from him, nor have all the prejudice and hampering and abuse to which black men, purely as such, have been subjected. This has been a strange limitation in a man who professes sympathies as wide as humanity. Mr. Bryan's silence about the injustice done a whole race has made it appear that his expansive benevolence was fettered by a keen perception of his own political advantage. And it is clear that he never dreamed how his plan of Government ownership would strike upon the race obsession of the South. That was only one proof more of his having rashly spoken without duly weighing the consequences. But there is something almost comic in the spectacle of a man who has been content to let the South do what it would with its colored citizens, suddenly discovering that he had gratuitously blundered into treading upon its susceptibilities and arousing its fears.

It may be said that Mr. Bryan's renunciation, shame-faced and half-hearted though it was, has removed the offence. But the South does not think so. It sees the fallacy and peril of his distinctions between "immediate" and "ultimate" issues. On that point, the Wilmington (N. C.) *Messenger* says with much directness:

> We do not think the South will stand for the later political principles Bryan has announced. The fact that he has modified his Madison Square Garden declaration in favor of Government ownership of railroads by saying that it is not to be made an immediate issue, shows that he has found public sentiment in his party against him at present on that proposition. The people, however, know his views on that question and they will not be fooled into supporting him on this recent modification thereof by his declaration in favor of postponing the time for putting the principle into effect. We do not believe a majority of the Democrats of the South want Bryan for President and we are sure that if nominated he will lose some of the States which Parker carried.

All this is far from proving that the ferment against Bryan, now evident in the South, will be fatal to his candidacy. There is, as yet, no organized movement against him. It is doubtless true, as the Nashville *American* asserts, that the South could make its opinion effective in the National Convention, provided it were backed up with "a solid delegation." But about whom is that delegation to rally? So long as that question is unanswered, Mr. Bryan has not much to dread. It is reported that he will make speeches in the South, during the autumn. By that means he may at least seem to win back the Southern support which is so absolutely essential to him. But as the case stands to-day, the South is undeniably ripe for revolt against him. Nothing is lacking but the occasion and the leader to make it a triumphant revolt.

FRIGHT AT SOCIALISM.

Recent political events in England have sent fresh shivers down the backs of those whose flesh is habitually made to creep by fear of Socialism. In the bye-election at Colne Valley, an out-and-out Socialist was returned to Parliament. It was a supposedly sure Liberal seat, yet there was a three-cornered contest, and the Conservatives hoped to slip their man in between the warring Liberals and Socialists. In fact, the Tories had been chuckling over the way in which the Liberal party was threatened with a break-up, by the desertion of its Radical allies, and were figuring on a great increase of their own vote. Unluckily for them, it fell off decidedly at Colne Valley. They had the chagrin of seeing many of their own followers voting for a Socialist. The effect was most depressing upon a certain order of Conservatives. One grizzled Tory colonel, who had faced Boer bullets undaunted, was thrown into a panic by the election returns from Colne Valley. They portended the total overthrow of society. "We shall live," he said, "to see the guillotine set up in Trafalgar Square."

Pending that interesting historical event, it is instructive to look across the Channel and see how Continental statesmen are facing the Socialist peril. The French journalist, Jules Huret, printed lately in the Paris *Figaro* a long and authorized interview with Chancellor von Bülow at Norderney. The conversation turned to the outlook for Socialism in Germany. Did it not contain a serious menace for the Empire? Prince Bülow thought not. His reasons were, not simply the loss of seats by the Social Democrats in the last elections to the Reichstag, but the further fact that, out of their 3,000,000 voters, not more than 500,000 were convinced Socialists; the rest were merely discontented, or men who simply took the Social-Democratic party as a convenient weapon wherewith to deal the Government a blow. There is doubtless much truth in this. The Chancellor went on:

> The Socialist leaders are as dogmatic theorists as anybody in the Middle Ages. You recall the famous debate at Amster-

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dam. Jaurès said to Bebel: "You have eighty-four members of the Reichstag, and it is as if you did not exist. You do nothing. Not one of you is in office. You are powerless to pass the smallest Socialist law." And Bebel retorted that the French Socialists were unable to pass even the bill for taxing incomes. In all this I see a proof that there is no such thing as the Socialist danger, provided that the Conservative and Liberal parties know enough to stand together in all action for social defence.

These two points of view, the English and the German, have often been duplicated in this country. We have frequently seen these ups and downs of apprehension about Socialism. Mayor Dunne was elected in Chicago, in 1905, and timid people told us that Socialism was going to "sweep the country." If all such predictions had been verified, the country would have been well swept by now. In 1907, however, Mayor Dunne is defeated, and old ladies of the male sex sleep easily again, and thank God that the Socialist peril is over. But they now see it looming again in consequence of the acquittal of Haywood. His counsel at Boisé preached the social revolution; and dire visions have afflicted many. They have seen, if not a guillotine erected in Trafalgar Square, at least a Socialist tax-gatherer taking away all their property.

A little of the philosophy of Mr. Dooley would reassure these anxious souls. That political observer had seen in his lifetime a succession of the most wonderful events—each year a political revolution, the country convulsed, Archey Road set rocking; yet when he looked back fifty years, it seemed as if "nawthin' whatever had happened." This is not merely the flattering assurance of the conservative, cased in fat, who says to himself that all things remain as they were. It is, rather, the clear perception of the truth that great political changes are wrought slowly; that human nature is the constant factor with which all innovators have to reckon, and that human nature does not essentially change from generation to generation.

There is no sound reason for being afraid of Socialism. It has doubtless come to stay in the political world, as it always has been in the world of political speculation. It will have its times of ebb, and its times of flow. Men of warm benevolence will adhere to it, as will youthful enthusiasts. It will also continue to number embittered men among its supporters, with social levellers of all kinds. But it can never abuse any political power which it may win, without at once provoking a reaction, and a union against it of the kind Prince Bülow describes, and so defeating itself. And, as every fair-minded student of our public life must admit, the Socialist party has its lessons and its warnings for other political parties. It has a programme both idealistic and utilitarian, and is a standing rebuke to those partisans who think of offices as a good in themselves, not as a means of doing the public business efficiently and benefiting the community. No sensible man will let Socialism alarm him; but if it can teach him anything, why, what is he here for except to learn? As between Bourbon and Socialist, the choice might not favor the former.

INDECISIVE RAILWAY CAMPAIGNS.

It is doubtless generally considered a vindication of the policy of securing low passenger fares by direct legislative action, that so many of the railways affected by the two-cent fare and similar acts of this year have announced that they will "obey" or "accept" the new schedules. The multitudes of people who are riding now, or will ride presently, for a cent per mile less than of old, will feel as though the points at issue were settled in an absolutely satisfactory way.

Yet to any one who looks beyond the interest of the moment, the real significance of the present situation must be found in what we may call the "loose ends" of the low-fare issue. There are many localities in which the questions at stake cannot really be called settled. In Alabama, the two and one-half cent fare, together with certain reduced freight schedules, goes into effect only pending judicial determination of the railways' Constitutional rights. In North Carolina the two and one-quarter cent rate went into effect last week, but with Gov. Glenn's promise that, if it proves too burdensome, he will call a special session of the Legislature to repeal it. Though a dispatch from Wisconsin last week stated that the roads of that State would not contest the two-cent-a-mile rate to go into effect on August 15, yet it now appears that they submit under protest, and the roads may carry their case into either the State or Federal courts whenever they see fit. In another Western State the roads, under a court order, are giving the new rates a temporary trial, with a view to obtaining data on which to determine later the reasonableness of the new rates. Thus in various ways the passenger fare situation is seen to be still confused and unsettled.

A problem like this can never be called settled at all until it is settled right; yet one of the most patent facts about the two-cent-fare laws was that they could not possibly be right for all the diverse States which passed them. If the favorite rate is fairly remunerative in the West, it must be too high in the thickly settled Eastern States; if it is a just rate here, it must conversely be too low in the West. There has been some effort, it is true, to make allowance for conditions. A few of the new laws deal in fractions of a cent, while several bear lightly on short lines as roads of small profits. But in general, our legislatures have followed the precedent of Procrustes. Even though some of them hit upon a rate which is fair and will stand scrutiny, it has been partly due to accident.

The case of Wisconsin, though it has attracted less attention than those of the South, is in some respects the best illustration of the effects of the low-fare obsession. Wisconsin was one State that did have reason to know what was a fair rate. The State Railroad Commission, a body in which there was general confidence, had studied the subject at great length, and concluded that two and one-half cents was a fairly remunerative passenger rate. There was a common belief that, as soon as the increased passenger business of the Wisconsin roads warranted it, the Commission would order a second reduction. Mileage books, in fact, were already being sold at the two-cent rate.

The Legislature established the reduced rate, not because it learned anything about its fairness, but because the Legislatures of neighboring States had done so. Even Gov. Davidson, in signing the bill, stated that he did so not so much because the rate itself was abstractly right, as because the railway companies had subjected Wisconsin shippers and passengers to unnecessary vexation and discriminations under the former law. The chairman of the Commission whose deliberate judgment had been thus overriden, promptly resigned his office, and it is worth noting that a majority of the legislators who had been most active in the movement to create the rate-commission so long urged by Gov. La Follette, opposed stoutly this year the proposal to set aside its decision.

The events in these other States have abundantly vindicated Gov. Hughes's veto of the two-cent-fare bill in New York. While it is, of course, possible that some radical Legislature will deal as cavalierly with our Public Utilities Boards as that of Wisconsin has done with the commission it created, yet it is altogether likely that the warning signals will be plainer a year from now than they are to-day. The States which have gone recklessly into the business of rate-fixing may find themselves in a worse position than when they began, morally if not financially.

New York has such an opportunity as rarely comes to any commonwealth for leadership in the intelligent regulation of public service corporations. We have seen many other States set out upon principles that were wrong, if well-intentioned; we have seen some that started out in the right way break down in the working out of their policies. The Government ownership advocates, of course, insist that since mere "regulation" is bound to fail in any case, there is really no great choice between slap-

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dash and painstaking methods. But this is not the general view. We think that the local Public Utilities Board has shown a proper appreciation of its duties by its investigation of the very fundamentals of the local traction problem, securing operating officials' testimony even to facts of the commonest knowledge. A series of decisions based on so solid a foundation of fact that the people will recognize their justice, while the companies affected will not be left a reasonable pretext for refusing obedience, will do more than any other one thing to clarify and moderate the disturbed sentiment of the day, in all these matters.

PHASES OF ACADEMIC FREEDOM.

A Rockefeller professor, according to newspaper report, has just made an open attack on Rockefeller. Prof. Charles Zeublin, of the University of Chicago, in a public lecture, is alleged to have criticised sharply the founder and fosterer of that University; to have said that the defence of the Standard Oil Company, in the recent trial, was "weak and cowardly"; and that "Mr. Rockefeller and other Trust magnates are doing more to make Socialism possible than are its most zealous adherents." So many fantastic tales have been printed about utterances of Chicago professors, that we place little faith in this particular story. But the report, whether well-founded or not, suggests certain reflections in regard to academic freedom. With the truth or falsity of the assertions attributed to Professor Zeublin we do not at present concern ourselves. If any one cares to know our opinion, we may say that we think them substantially true. But their utterance by a member of an institution which lives by grace of Rockefeller raises a serious question of academic ethics. Is it proper, is it desirable, that a university should take a man's millions, and then allow one of its professors thus to assail him?

This is a question which President Eliot recently touched upon with his customary fine moral discrimination. In his address before the Phi Beta Kappa Society of Cornell on Academic Freedom, he asked: "Ought the opinions and wishes of a living benefactor to influence the teaching in the institution which he endows?" His answer was, as a general proposition, in the negative. Teaching which is not free, and not known to be free, is worthless. At the same time, Mr. Eliot insisted that benefactors have "certain rights in this respect." The common principles of fair dealing apply:

> They may fairly claim that their benefactions entitle their opinions and sentiments to be treated with consideration and respect, and not with contumely or scorn, in the institutions they have endowed, or by the professors whom their gifts support. If their benefactions are for general uses and not for the support of any specific courses of instruction, they may fairly claim that subjects likely to be taught in a manner repulsive to them should be omitted altogether, unless some serious public obligation requires the institution to include them.

Such a view is not the popular one, at the present day. The multitude sees no impropriety in taking a man's money, and then endeavoring to make his name a hissing. And many university men would cry out that President Eliot's position is subversive of academic freedom. But this tempts one to exclaim: "Oh, Academic Freedom, what indecencies are committed in thy name!" There are certain elementary rules of propriety governing the intercourse of men, and even the behavior of institutions, and these existed prior to any notions of *Lehrfreiheit*. It simply is not morally decent to accept a gift and then abuse the giver. The way to preserve academic freedom is to refuse any endowments which may impair it. Once the money is taken, an obligation goes with it to treat the giver with ordinary courtesy. Academic freedom, as President Eliot shows, is at best imperfect. It is limited, in fact, by many and differing considerations. Certainly, it is but fair to limit it by the general rules which ought to control the attitude of a beneficiary to his benefactor.

Objectors fail to see that one's free action may restrict his freedom. It is not necessary for a university to accept funds from a citizen whom it considers undesirable. Academic freedom to refuse it is entire. The moment, however, the money is in its treasury, the university is bound to do what a man of due sensibility would under the circumstances. It cannot at the same time be grateful and vindictive; cannot accept a man's purse, and then beat him over the head with it. But how about the poor professors at Chicago? Are they to be forbidden to rail at Rockefeller? They surely were not parties to the tacit bargain between him and the institution. Yes; but they accepted their positions with their eyes open. If their academic freedom is hampered, it is by their own voluntary act. It is evident, moreover, that aside from the point of etiquette, little or nothing is gained when a professor at Chicago discusses Mr. Rockefeller. If the professor praises, he is generally accused of toadying; if he blames, he is suspected of trying to create a sensation and advertise himself. In the very nature of the case, his words are rendered null. His situation is not unlike that of clergymen who wish to attack the creed of the church which they have vowed to maintain. They are at perfect liberty to speak their minds, but not in the pulpit of that church. If Professor Zeublin burns to hit out at Rockefeller, the country is full of stumps and platforms and newspapers where he can do it to his heart's content; but it is neither seemly nor useful, in our opinion, for him to do it as a Rockefeller professor.

Liberty of teaching is a precious thing, anxiously to be preserved. The late Ferdinand Brunetière put an exalted value upon it. A lecture of his on "La liberté d'enseignement" has lately been published by some of his friends. In the course of it, Brunetière thus stated the ideal position of the ideal professor:

> I am here neither as delegate, representative, nor mouthpiece of any party, coterie, or league. I do not dream of either changing the form of government, revising the Constitution, or even upsetting the Ministry. These may be useful things to do, but they are not within my province. Besides, what can a change in persons or in manners lead us to, if we have not first changed opinions?

That conception of the liberty of the true teacher is one that ought to be prized by everybody and jealously protected. But it is a liberty which may have to be bought with a great price—even the price of declining gifts which, once taken, necessarily cut into its fine independence.

TRANSMUTATION OF THE ELEMENTS.

Cablegrams from England recently intimated that the transmutation of the chemical elements had been accomplished by Sir William Ramsay. Many modern chemists have believed that one of the so-called chemical elements could be changed into another, but that belief had not been substantiated by actual experiments, reported by observers of scientific acumen and accepted integrity. Hence the telegrams were doubted; but the English journals of science, subsequently received, show the general accuracy of the press reports. At the annual meeting of the British Association there was a lively discussion of the nature and origin of the chemical elements. In the course of it, Sir William Ramsay stated the results of numerous experiments undertaken by him in recent years.

According to a tacit agreement among chemists, an element is a substance which, although it may be a constituent of a large number of more or less complicated bodies, has itself not been decomposed into anything else. For instance, sodium is a constituent of common table salt, cooking and laundry salt, Glauber's salt, borax, waterglass, and many other substances, but it is regarded as an element. Every element is characterized by two apparently definite qualities. It has a definite atomic weight or equivalence, and it has never been known to enter any compound in less proportion than that equivalence.

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For example, sodium is twenty-three times the weight of hydrogen, which is the lightest known element, and for that reason is placed at unity. Sodium may and does enter into compounds as forty-six, sixty-nine, etc.; multiples, in short, but never as a fraction of twenty-three.

An element is also characterized by a definite spectrum. About forty years ago, Jannsen, and later Lockyer, recognized characteristic new lines in the light from the sun's chromosphere. This was attributed to an unknown element, helium, definitely found in certain mundane minerals by Ramsay thirty years later. Preceding the latter discovery, this Scotch chemist, in collaboration with Lord Rayleigh, found that the air contained a hitherto unrecognized constituent to the extent of one per cent. It was called argon. Three other accepted elements of the same general character as helium and argon have been found in the air, but in very small amounts, a few parts to the hundred million. Scientific men have so far failed in causing any of these five elements to form any compounds.

During the same year that the last three of these elements were discovered, an intrepid Polish woman and her husband, Professor Curie, in Paris, traced out the elusive but remarkable radium—a substance so marvellous that we have not as yet secured a satisfactory description. It is an element in that it possesses a definite atomic weight and distinguishing spectrum, but it is unique in many ways. It maintains itself at a temperature constantly above its surroundings; it charges bodies electrically and discharges bodies already charged; and it constantly gives out a gas called "emanation" by its discoverer, Rutherford. This emanation, left alone, gradually changes, step by step, into helium. If this be a genuine change, and experimental observation indicates that it is, then we have the transformation of one element into another, or transmutation.

Conservative scientific men, among them Lord Kelvin in England, and Professor Baskerville in this country, maintained that, if there were a change, then by definition we have no right to regard radium as an element. As this view was gaining adherents, the results of Professor Ramsay's experiments were announced, and a new physico-chemical conception of matter was presented. The value assigned to radium in the atomic weight tables is third from the highest. By many workers and thinkers, it is regarded as a decomposition product of uranium, the element of the greatest atomic weight. The helium produced has a weight next to the lowest. During these changes immense amounts of energy are given out—immeasurably greater than that produced during the most violent chemical activity with which man is familiar. Radium compounds give off under the ordinary conditions the emanation which changes to helium. According to Ramsay, the emanation in the presence of water produces neon, a member of the helium group; in the presence of copper compounds, like copper sulphate or nitrate, argon, also a part of that family. One of these is five and the other ten times as heavy as helium. Why the change does not continue is not explained. Nor why these substances obtained from other sources do not change into helium is not made clear. Doubtless, these points will receive most careful scrutiny by scientific men, who will at once reject or accept the new paths opened up for the pioneer.

The most remarkable observation, however, had to do, not with these inert gases, but with the liquid left behind. When the copper was removed from the solution, lithium was detected in the residue. This was not the case when a similar solution was taken before treatment with the emanation. One of the chemical families, so classified on account of certain resemblances, contains among others copper, silver, gold, and lithium. The last-named is the lightest member. The natural conclusion is that copper, nine times as heavy as lithium, has been "degraded" into the light element through the agency of this surcharged instrument, the emanation.

Roger Bacon maintained that the transformation of copper into gold by purification was absurd. That constituted only one step toward "perfection." The purest gold was that found in nature; it was so, because in it nature had finished her work. The base metal was to be purified as far as possible, but then something was still wanted, the "philosopher's stone," a pinch of which, when added, would effect the complete imitation of nature. Can this "emanation" be the "philosopher's stone" reversed? Those in this country who know, and have been at work on the problem, think that it is unlikely; but Ramsay's successes have been largely due to the investigation of the unlikely.

NEW MEMOIRS OF THE REVOLUTION.

PARIS, July 31.

Those who are willing to read many books will soon be able to know what really went on during and after the French Revolution better than those who lived at the time. Everything—letters, diaries, family papers of the day, written not for the general reader, but sincerely as the occasion presented itself—is coming to the light of print.

The "Journal inédit de Madame de Marigny," to which have been added the daily notes of the British T. R. Underwood (1814), is a good example. Madame de Marigny was the youngest of the four sisters of René de Chateaubriand. In her own family, and among the Malesherbes and other families with which she was allied by marriage, the guillotine reaped a plentiful harvest of heads; and Napoleon was not clement to them. These diaries cover the time of the final rebound, when the Bourbon restoration was beginning. We see in them the curious apathy of victims with nerves dulled by measureless and irretrievable disaster; there were still cakes and ale in the world. J. Ladreit de Lacharrière has edited the Journal with an *Introduction and notes*; and Henry Houssaye of the French Academy, the great authority for the years of Napoleon's downfall, gives a Preface.

A similarity of name should not lead to confusion with another book of personal documents, "Madame de Souza et sa famille—les Marigny—les Flahaut—Auguste de Morny (1761-1836)." The Baron de Maricourt has here gathered together the highly anecdotic history of a less tragic and more aggressive family than the Chateaubriands. The names of Flahaut and Morny enter notoriously into the history of Queen Hortense and Napoleon the Third, and by marriage into that of the English peerage of Lansdowne.

"L'Architrésorier Lebrun—Gouverneur de la Hollande (1810-1813)," by the Marquis de Caumont La Force, furnishes the sober historian with means of estimating at their real value the prodigies of systematic financial administration inaugurated by Napoleon wherever his power extended.

The Paris court records of the years of Revolution were destroyed in 1871, when the Commune burned the Palais de Justice. It was known that the courts sat imperturbably, with judges and lawyers trying cases according to all the subtleties of laws old and new, while the administrative tribunals were sending their wagon-loads of victims to the guillotine. It was thought these precious judicial documents—*Archives du Greffe*—were totally lost to history. It now seems that the elder Casenave, who was counsellor and presiding judge in Paris from 1852 to his death in 1869, had used his leisure in studying and annotating them, copying with a lawyer's professional instinct the principal judgments. These notes in their turn disappeared; but they have quite recently been found and edited by one of the most competent specialists of the legal history of the Revolution, M. Douarche, counsellor at the Court of Cassation. The whole is now published in three volumes and forms a judicial chronicle reaching from 1791 to 1800—a part of the Revolution seen at close range.

For the first time we have here an exact account of the Latude trials. Latude, as a man and as a victim of the old régime, has been greatly discredited in recent documentary history. Still, it was the story of his long imprisonment which more than anything else stirred the Paris populace to the taking of the Bastille. Latude, an old man of sixty-eight, took advantage of the downfall of the monarchy to sue for damages the heirs of Madame de Pompadour and the still living minister of Louis XV., as responsible for his confinement of thirty-four years. The defendants had full liberty to present their side of the case. Judgment was given September 11, 1793, the trial having taken place just as Marie Antoinette was being tried before a very different tribunal. Champertois, the presiding judge, was one of those magistrates elected by the people of Paris under the new order of things. He

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notes in his judgment that Latude had been guilty of an attempt at swindling himself into the good graces of "the all-powerful woman"; but this had not merited so long and cruel an imprisonment. The Pompadour heir is accordingly sentenced to pay Latude 40,000 francs. As to the King's minister, Amelot, the damages are assessed at 20,000 livres, for a reason which will be eagerly caught up by the opponents of Taine. After Latude had been in the Bastille twenty-nine years, the lieutenant of police noted the fact on the prisoner's petition, and added the words, "His lot depends on the minister." Amelot wrote underneath, "Nothing to be done"—words which kept Latude in prison five years longer. Whatever the misdeeds of the Revolution, it made such arbitrary exercise of power impossible for the future. S. D.

Correspondence.

MOVEMENT TO MAKE BROWN UNIVERSITY NON-SECTARIAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A movement has been started among the alumni to make Brown University in every respect non-sectarian. The charter of the university, granted by the General Assembly of the Colony of Rhode Island in 1764, provided that the corporation shall consist of two branches, the Trustees and the Fellows. The Trustees shall be thirty-six in number, of whom twenty-two shall forever be Baptists, or Antipædobaptists; five, Friends, or Quakers; four, Congregationalists; and five Episcopalians. The Fellowship shall constitute a learned faculty to confer degrees, while the instruction and immediate government of the college shall rest in the President and Fellows or Fellowship. The number of the Fellows, inclusive of the President, shall be twelve, of whom eight shall be Baptists, and the rest indifferently of any or all denominations. The President shall be a Baptist. Whatever may be a man's character, achievements, genius, scholarship or peculiar capacity in educational matters, he cannot, unless he is formally connected with one of the four specified denominations, be elected a trustee. He can never be a trustee if he happens to be a Methodist, a Presbyterian, a Lutheran, a Swedenborgian, a Roman Catholic, or not a member of any church. No man can be elected President if he happened to be christened in infancy, unless he was immersed later, upon reaching maturity. The same restriction applies to eight of the twelve Fellows. The wisdom of the view that the rite of baptism should be entered into only when one has reached sufficient maturity to be able to decide for one's-self as to its meaning, and to assume the obligation it stands for, is conceded by many who are not formally Antipædobaptists, but the wisdom of the continuance forever of these restrictions of a past age upon the development of a college may well be questioned.

To understand another important restriction in this charter, while at the same time to do justice to the liberal spirit in which the administration of the college is conducted, the following clause of the charter must be cited in full:

It is hereby Enacted and Declared, That into this liberal and catholic Institution shall never be admitted any religious Tests: But on the contrary all the Members hereof shall forever enjoy full, free, absolute and uninterrupted Liberty of Conscience: And that the Places of Professors, Tutors, and all other Officers, the President alone excepted, shall be free and open for all Denominations of Protestants: And that Youth of all religious Denominations shall and may be freely admitted to the equal Advantages, Emoluments, and Honors of the College or University; and shall receive a like fair, generous and equal Treatment during their Residence therein, they conducting themselves peaceably, and conforming to the Laws and Statutes thereof. And that the public Teaching shall in general, respect the Sciences; and that the Sectarian Differences of Opinions shall not make any Part of the public and classical Instruction: Although all religious Controversies may be studied freely, examined and explained by the President, Professors, and Tutors, in a personal, separate and distinct Manner to the Youth of any or each Denomination; And above all, a constant regard be paid to, and effectual Care taken of, the Morals of the College.

This is admirable except the clause limiting "the Places of Professors, Tutors, and all other Officers, the President alone excepted," to members of Protestant demominations. Whoever wrote this must have had but a poor sense of humor thus to impose a test in the very section in which he says no test shall ever be admitted.

The alumni who would abolish the religious tests would simply make Brown University, in fact as in name, what it professes to be, a non-sectarian college with complete separation of education from ecclesiasticism. If they would be true to their great distinctive principle of soul liberty, to no body of men should the change be so welcome as to those of the Baptist denomination. Brown is not a Baptist college in any true sense of the term. The distinctive theological principles of the Baptists are not taught there, it does not fit young men for the Baptist ministry, and while it is true that in the past Baptists have contributed largely to its funds, an examination of the source of its endowments shows that a majority of its benefactors have not been Baptists, nor has the major part of its endowments come from them.

The change can only be made with the consent of the corporation. The decision in the celebrated case of Dartmouth College by the Supreme Court of the United States in 1819 (Trustees of Dartmouth College vs. Woodward. 4 Wheat. 518) protects the college from any change, unless the corporation consent. In that case it was decided that a charter is a contract; and article 1, sec. 10, of the Constitution of the United States prohibits any State from passing any law impairing the obligations of contracts. It was in consequence of this decision that when the charter of Brown University was amended by Public Laws, Chapter 451, February 11, 1863, the act began: "The Corporation of Brown University in Providence consenting thereto," and the corporation on the same day did consent thereto by a formal vote.

In consequence of a feeling among many of the alumni that the time has come for a consideration of this subject, the notices sent out last spring of the annual meeting in June of the Associated Alumni announced that the topic would come up for consideration. Accordingly, at that meeting a resolution was offered to appoint a special sub-committee to take into consideration the advisability of asking the corporation to petition the General Assembly to amend the charter by striking out all denominational requirements; to confer with the corporation on this subject; to report to the annual meeting of the Advisory Committee, and, with its approval, to print a report and to provide for a poll of the whole body of the alumni, if practicable, before the next annual meeting of the Associated Alumni.

But this mild proposal was opposed upon the ground that a proposal to strike out the denominational requirements of the charter should come from the Baptists themselves. It was pointed out, in reply, that the question of striking out the denominational requirements was not before the meeting, the question being the propriety of appointing a committee to examine and to report upon that subject. It was also pointed out that even if all these religious tests were stricken out, nothing would be taken away from the Baptists. They might even become gainers thereby, for they could elect, if they presented the strongest and best qualified candidates, more than the twenty-two trustees and the eight fellows to which they are now restricted.

It was asked whether the object of the suggested change was to enable the college to receive the benefit of the Carnegie fund. It was answered that the change was suggested because it is right it should be made, irrespective of the Carnegie fund. Some may approve the change because that will be the result, and some may disapprove because it will have that result. So some men may decline to send their sons to Brown if the change is made, while others may decline to do so unless it is made; but such considerations should not enter into an examination of the subject. If made, the change should be made because it is right.

But it was getting late in the afternoon and near the hour for the Phi Beta Kappa oration, which many wanted to hear. All conceded the wisdom of deliberate action after due consideration, so it was voted to lay the matter on the table until the next annual meeting. Notice was at once given that the subject would then be called from the table for consideration.

A few days later President Faunce referred to the subject in his annual report to the corporation. He said, in part:

If any change is to be made, it should be brought about, not by casting discredit on our fundamental instrument, but with full recognition of its extraordinary liberality. Many times it has been justly said that no other document of the eighteenth century so truly breathes the spirit of the twentieth century. If we change its letter, it must be in order to preserve its spirit, the immortal spirit of intellectual and religious liberty. No one, of course, would advocate such a charter to-day, if a new college were to be founded. Conditions have vastly changed, and some provisions are rapidly becoming antiquated and difficult to carry out. But we should not forget, and not allow the public to forget, that in 1764 our charter provided that the public teaching shall, in general, "respect the sciences" and "all the members hereof shall forever enjoy full, free, absolute, and uninterrupted liberty of conscience." The essential features of such a document, however we modify its transient provisions, are as precious to us as the outlines of University Hall. We must also acknowledge that in interpreting the

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denominational requirements for trustees, the corporation in their elections, and the alumni in their nominations, have shown a most catholic temper. This catholicity has indeed sometimes been made a cause of reproach as if we were disingenuous in electing some men who are not in the strictest sense members of their respective churches.

The corporation took no action on the subject. It meets again in September, when perhaps the admirable presentation thus made by the president and the widespread agitation of the subject may lead to the appointment of a committee to consider and to report upon it. Otherwise many will feel that the considerate course of the Associated Alumni in postponing the subject until next year, thus giving the Baptists the desired opportunity to lead the movement themselves, has not been duly appreciated and acted upon.

AMASA M. EATON.

Providence, R. I., August 10.

KARL LAMPRECHT'S GERMANY IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: With astounding fertility of mind and energy of purpose, Karl Lamprecht has added during the last decades volume after volume to his monumental "Deutsche Geschichte." Each new volume has aroused the same eager discussion, has met with the same violent opposition on the one hand and the same enthusiastic praise on the other.

One set of readers would find in each succeeding volume a new proof of the author's remarkable grasp of thought, of his wide sweep of vision, of his mastery in tracing the rise and fall of large intellectual or social movements. Another class would deride it as a fresh token of his hastiness in reaching conclusions, of his fatal gift for generalization, of his inability to see facts as they are, of his fundamental lack of true historical perspective. Both classes of critics would generally overlook the fact that this historian is a man of a very complex nature; that the defects and the merits of his method are inextricably interwoven with each other; that what he attempts is altogether out of the range of the ordinary conception of historical writing; that in trying to follow out the whole variety of the manifold radiations of national will, thought, imagination, and activity, he can hardly escape the danger of going astray in detail, and yet, by his very conception of national life as a mighty whole, is bound to open up vistas quite out of reach for the average digger for facts.

No part of Lamprecht's lifework is likely to arouse a more heated discussion of the sort just described than the recently published volume (the eighth of the whole series) dealing with the evolution of social and individual life in the Germany of the eighteenth century. I have thought, therefore, that a brief and impartial consideration of some of the most striking features of this volume, laid before your readers, may serve to lead to a somewhat calmer and more sober appreciation of the significance of the whole undertaking.

That Lamprecht's survey of Germany in the eighteenth century is a philosophical construction rather than a plain historical narrative, is clear at first sight. It is based on the fundamental conception that the eighteenth century marks the transition from what the author calls the individualistic to what he terms the subjectivistic period of modern German history. Every constructive writer has the right to coin his own terminology. So we have to accept Lamprecht's definition of individualism and subjectivism as designating two essentially different, if not mutually exclusive, states of mind and society: individualism, a state in which the individual is isolated, cut loose from the world of common feelings, emotions, and aspirations, a thing of the intellect, in matters religious and philosophical inclining to rationalistic and mechanical views, in politics submitting to the levelling influence of autocratic rule; subjectivism a state in which the individual has come to recognize itself as an organic part of a larger social and spiritual whole, and consequently seeks its own perfection and freedom in the full development of all those powers within it which make for a stronger and more active common consciousness and which heighten and deepen the sense of the interdependence of all life. We have to accept this terminology, I say; although it seems to me that the contrast of individualism and collectivism—terms which, if I am not mistaken, I have been the first to apply to the literary development of Germany in the eighteenth century—would express more satisfactorily what Lamprecht has in mind. The remarkable thing is that, without in the main doing violence to facts, Lamprecht succeeds in fitting the whole of the economic, and social, as well as the moral, intellectual, literary and artistic, evolution of eighteenth-century Germany into this scheme.

Only a few of the most noteworthy applications of this method can here be indicated. In the economic development, it leads Lamprecht to observe in the first half of the eighteenth century on the one hand the beginnings of a new *bourgeoisie*, resting, to some extent at least, on the modern principle of free competition; on the other, the first comprehensive measures of state supervision of industrial enterprises. In moral and intellectual matters, it enables him to trace the gradual heightening and intensifying of the inner life in this *bourgeois* society, and to show how the outburst of sentimentality in the fifties and sixties and the Storm and Stress of the seventies were simply the climax of deep-seated and slowly rising popular movements. And it enables him to bring before us in detail and with an astounding wealth of illustration the steady growth and victorious pressing on of the new ideals of life and the new gospels of art which finally in the life work of Goethe, Schiller, Kant, Mozart, and Beethoven find their consummate expression.

Lamprecht is anything but a perspicuous or persuasive writer. He is often verbose and usually professorial; at times his style is cumbersome to a degree. Rarely does he betray the power of creating plastic characters. For the most part, his narrative moves on unillumined by flashes of genius, tramping along (so to speak) on the monotonous road of general categories. Only now and then, notably so in the description of the friendship between Goethe and Schiller, and in the character sketches of Kant and Beethoven, does the warmth of his feeling lend a decided personal impressiveness and ruggedness to his words. His strength lies, not in the clearness of his thought or the neatness of his observation, but in what may be called a primitive instinct for the intellectual and moral forces that shape the lives of men. His book is, indeed, a history of these forces rather than of the men and the works inspired by them. In the history of conceptions of life, in the survey of moral impulses and æsthetic ideals, especially in so far as they have affected masses of men, his account of eighteenth-century Germany is an achievement unsurpassed if not unparalleled.

In what other book is there to be found an account comparable to that given by Lamprecht in the chapter entitled "Neue Weltanschauung," of what may be called the intellectual fluid surrounding the classic art and poetry of the Weimar period? How the rationalistic view of the soul as a blank surface receiving impressions only from without gradually changes to the conception of it as an unfathomable ocean containing within itself hidden treasures and countless wonders; how the monopoly of the intellect is constantly inveighed upon and finally overthrown by feeling and intuition; how the nature and the domain of genius come to be an absorbing topic of philosophical speculation; how the bars which rationalism had erected between man and the rest of creation are torn down, one after another; how the universe more and more reveals itself as an infinite living organism; how man's part in this organism more and more comes to be understood as that of a free spiritual agency, mysteriously connected with the sources of all life and drawing from its own innermost self the absolute assurance of an ideal world underlying all reality—these are only some of the topics which make this chapter a comprehensive analysis of the spirit which found its artistic embodiment in "Faust," "Wallenstein," and the Ninth Symphony.

Truly, in looking back upon such a chapter as this, one is not surprised to hear Lamprecht utter words of derision and scorn at the shallow methods of the literary historian who sees his main task in tracing the formal influence of one writer upon another. Inasmuch as these methods have frequently, although erroneously, been designated as typical of modern German scholarship, I cannot forego closing this brief notice of Lamprecht's book by quoting a passage of his on historical principles so diametrically opposed to his own:

It shows the shortsightedness of the traditional manner of historical writing that the whole abundant spiritual development described in these pages is often traced back to certain isolated literary events from the fifties to the seventies of the eighteenth century. The epoch of sentimentality is said to have been called forth by Klopstock's "Messias," the age of Storm and Stress by Goethe's "Götz von Berlichingen," and so forth. What a naïve turning about of cause and effect! What a poverty of historical intuition! Some investigators have even gone further. They think they have explained everything, when they are able to point to some "foreign" literary influence. Thus a great national movement, the transition of the German people from

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individualism to subjectivism, is explained by putting it to the account of Shakespeare and Rousseau, or even of "Ossian" and "Yorick's Sentimental Journey." Such views as these are best criticised by the Biblical word: By their fruits shall ye know them.

Fortunately, we may add, such views are not held by anybody worth considering.

KUNO FRANCKE.

Gilbertsville, N. Y., July 27.

DEFOE AND WOODWARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the second of his interesting "Bibliographical Notes on Defoe," Prof. W. P. Trent, apparently speaking of Lee's "Chronological Catalogue," says:

> Of this large list some are plain errors, *e. g.*, the queried ascription to Defoe of Gay's poem "Wine," and the categorical ascription of Josiah Woodward's "Account of the Societies for the Reformation of Manners" (*Nation*, July 11, p. 30).

In the British Museum catalogue and elsewhere this last pamphlet, of which two editions were published in 1699, is attributed to the Rev. Josiah Woodward; and Professor Trent has accepted this attribution. Yet it can, I think, be conclusively shown that Woodward did not write the pamphlet. After enumerating the duties of about a dozen of the societies organized late in the seventeenth century for the suppression of immoralities and the prosecution of offenders, the author of the pamphlet goes on to say:

> These are the SOCIETIES which our late *Gracious Queen*, as the Learned *Bishop* that hath writ her LIFE tells us,* took so great *Satisfaction* in, that She inquired *often* and *much* about them, and was *glad* they went on and prevailed; which, thanks be to God, they *continue* to do; as the Rev. Mr. *Woodward*, who hath obliged the World with a very particular Account of the *Rise* and *Progress* of them, hath lately acquainted us. ("An Account of the Societies for Reformation of Manners, in London and Westminster, and other Parts of the Kingdom," London, 1699, pp. 15, 16.)

It is obvious from this passage that Woodward could not have been the author of the pamphlet from which it is quoted. Yet Woodward did write a pamphlet on the Societies. In the Epistle Prefatory to a sermon preached before the Societies on December 28, 1696, Woodward thus alluded to his own pamphlet: "*As it is more particularly related in an* Account of the Rise and Progress of the Religious Societies of Young Men, *lately published*" (p. viii). The title of Woodward's pamphlet is, "An Account of the Rise and Progress of the Religious Societies in the City of London, etc. And of the Endeavours for Reformation of Manners Which have been made therein." No copy of the first edition is known to me, but according to Arber's "Term Catalogues" (ii., 600) it was published in November, 1696, under the title of "An Earnest Admonition to All; but especially to Young Persons to turn to God by speedy repentance and reformation. Being the substance of six Sermons. . . . To which is added, An Account of the Rise and Progress of the Religious Societies of Young Men, and of the Societies for Reformation." In the British Museum are the second (1698), the third (1701), and the fourth (1712) editions.

If, then, Woodward did not write the 1699 pamphlet, who did write it? May it not have been written by Defoe? On this point, of course, the present writer has no opinion to offer. Let me add that copies of the 1699 pamphlet are in the Boston Athenæum and the Harvard College Library.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

Jefferson, N. H., July 29.

*The allusion is to Gilbert Burnet's "Essay on the Memory of the late Queen," published in 1695.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have already thanked Mr. Matthews for his kindness in communicating to me the facts contained in the letter printed above and for giving me an opportunity to examine his article "A Dorchester Religious Society of Young Men," printed in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for January, 1906. Mr. Matthews's quotation from "An Account of the Societies for Reformation of Manners in London and Westminster, etc." (1699) seems to me to furnish very strong grounds for rejecting the ascription of the book to Josiah Woodward; for, although I can furnish an instance of a clergyman's speaking of himself in the third person in such a way as to make one argue that he could not possibly be the author of the tract under investigation, there were obvious reasons for that Scotch divine's trying to throw his readers off the scent, and such reasons seem wanting in the present case.

Assuming then that Woodward did not write the 1699 "Account," Mr. Matthews may well ask whether Defoe did not. The book is definitely attributed to him in the British Museum Catalogue under "Defoe," although what is apparently a second edition of 1699 is under "London" attributed to Woodward. What may possibly be a third edition of 1699 is attributed to Woodward in the "Supplement," but a comparison of the copies would be needed to determine whether it is really the same book. I examined the edition of 1699, attributed to Defoe entirely from the point of view of endeavoring to determine whether the Museum Catalogue was correct in including it among Defoe's works or Lee correct in omitting it. My notes show that I was left in a state of suspended judgment. Later, on finding in the Columbia copy and elsewhere the positive ascription to Woodward, I concluded that the ascription in the Museum Catalogue under Defoe must be an error, and so wrote in the paragraph which occasioned Mr. Matthews's letter. I am fresh from a partial examination of the fifth edition of the book (1701), and regret to say that I have found no valid reason for assigning it to Defoe. I use the word "regret" advisedly, for with such a voluminous writer one feels cheated when there is a single year of his life to which one cannot positively ascribe an item. One thousand six hundred and ninety-nine seems to be such a year in Defoe's career. Of the six possible ascriptions for that year that I have gathered thus far, I cannot be sure of any, and I am strongly inclined toward none. I shall reëxamine the "Account" in the hope of discovering some clue that will warrant at least its tentative ascription to Defoe, for the considerable use it makes of Greek and one or two other features, to say nothing of its exemplary subject, make it a tract which would figure well on the virtuous side of Daniel's ledger.

W. P. TRENT.

New York, August 9.

THE BRITISH MUSEUM READING-ROOM

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your readers doubtless remember the announcement made last spring in the *Nation*, through a correspondent in London, concerning the closing for some months of the large reading-room of the British Museum. Permit me to give briefly my own experience in connection with this. Applying from Canada for the privilege of a special ticket, I received a favorable reply *by return of post*. On arriving in London, I had the additional gratification of finding that the whole catalogue, the bibliographical reference-volumes, and the complete consulting library on the ground floor had been shifted to the temporary quarters, and were as readily accessible as before. During my period of work, I have on no occasion waited more than twenty-five minutes for any work requested. What is perhaps more noteworthy still, is that this vast work in administration seems to be taken by the whole personnel of the Library as a natural part of official duty; and I am not aware that the London press has given this achievement any particular measure of consideration.

PAUL T. LAFLEUR.

Paris, July 29.

THE CATENA AUREA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: About the year 1885, Bocca, a well-known dealer in rare and second-hand books of Rome, sold in America a very old Codex, "Expositio in Quatuor Evangelia" (or as it is modernly called the "Catena Aurea") of St. Thomas Aquinas. At the end of the text the MS. bears, if I am not mistaken, the following date: "anno M° CC° LXX° VI°" (1276). If that is not the precise date, it is wrong by only a few years, either before or after.

My purpose in writing to you is to find out its present whereabouts. Should you be unable to furnish the information, perhaps some reader of the *Nation* can.

F. G. HORN, O. P.

New York, August 8.

Notes.

The Makers of Canada Series (Morang & Co.) is soon to include a "Life of Sir John Macdonald," by Dr. George R. Parkin, C. M. G.

Doubleday, Page & Co. announce for publication this month "The Lone Star," by Eugene P. Lyle, jr.; "The Road to Happiness," by Mrs. Van Koert Schuyler; "To Him That Hath," a story of the New York Bowery by Leroy Scott; "The Memoirs of Madame Ristori," and "Daffodils, Narcissus, and How to Grow Them," by A. M. Kirby.

E. P. Dutton & Co. publish this week "Corolla Sancti Eadmundi," edited by Lord Francis Hervey; "Villani's Chronicle," translated by Rose E. Selfe and edited by Philip H. Wicksteed; "The Art of Reconnaissance," by Col. David Henderson, D. S. O.; and "Soldiers of Fortune in Camp and Court," by Alexander Innes Shand.

Duffield & Co. announce the following for publication this autumn: "Painters and

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Sculptors," a new and copiously illustrated volume of art criticisms by Kenyon Cox; "Houses for Town or Country," by William Herbert, with over two hundred pictures; "Historic Churches of America," by Mrs. N. U. Wallington, with an introduction by the Rev. Dr. Edward Everett Hale, and many illustrations; "Plays of our Forefathers," by Prof. Charles M. Gayley of the University of California; "Poems of Edgar Allan Poe," edited by Edmund Clarence Stedman and George E. Woodberry; "House Health," by Dr. Norman Bridge; "The Holy Grail," a posthumous drama by Richard Hovey; "Gypsy Verses," by Helen Hay Whitney; "Familiar Faces," a new book of comic verse by Harry Graham; and a new and specially illustrated Vermont edition of Miss Theodora Peck's "Hester of the Grants."

We note the appearance of six more volumes in the World's Classics (Henry Frowde): Leigh Hunt's "The Town," edited by Austin Dobson; Richard Cobbold's "History of Margaret Catchpole," edited by Clement Shorter; George Herbert's "Poems," edited by Arthur Waugh; R. H. Horne's "New Spirit of the Age," edited by Walter Jerrold; Dickens's "Great Expectations," with six illustrations by Warwick Goble, and Frere's "Four Plays of Aristophanes," with an introduction by W. W. Merry.

Buxton Forman has given to the Keats-Shelley Memorial Corporation a mass of books, pamphlets, newspaper cuttings, etc., illustrative of the poets' works. They will be placed in the museum in Rome.

Arrangements have been adopted for printing an elaborate descriptive catalogue of the famous library of Samuel Pepys, which since 1723 has been in the keeping of Magdalene College, Cambridge. The library has been left during all these years in exactly the same state in which its collector arranged it on the shelves of the oak presses whose construction is recorded in the Diary, and this is the first attempt to put it generally at the service of bibliophiles. The collection numbers only about 3,000 volumes, but as many as half a dozen distinguished specialists have been engaged to catalogue them.

The report of J. C. Schwab, librarian of Yale University, for the year ending June 30, 1907, notes the progress made in unifying the work of the different departmental libraries. In the case of all, the main library is now supplied with a catalogue of the serials and similar publications taken, and in several of them the university librarian has been officially designated as purchasing agent. The aim "is not so much to collect all the books of the university under the roof of the university library as to unify the administration of all the libraries concerned, and make the central library the clearing house for all of them, where the catalogue of their contents may be found." The policy of making access to the shelves more general, he reports, has been followed with gratifying results, and without any increase in the number of books lost. In view of "the increasing part of the time of the library staff given to directing students and officers to the material they need," Mr. Schwab urges that the proportion of the university's revenue given to the library under the old order of things is no longer just or adequate.

Plans for the new building for the library of the University of California have been completed and adopted by the regents, and work on the structure is to begin at once. It promises to be one of the noblest and largest of its kind in this country, covering a space two hundred feet square, and providing room for 500,000 volumes, in addition to numerous reading and seminar rooms. A classic design is to be followed, its chief feature being a colonnade of Corinthian columns, with an imposing doorway. Its material is to be white granite, and no woodwork is to appear anywhere in the building. Special quarters are to be provided for the great Bancroft historical library, which came into possession of the university about two years ago.

Prof. Kuno Francke wishes us to correct a misunderstanding which might arise from our note in the *Nation* of June 27, on his "Germans Ideals of To-day." Most of the brief papers making up the chapter "Sketches of Contemporary German Literature" first appeared in the *Nation*. The longer essays were originally published in the *Atlantic*, the *International Quarterly*, and the *Outlook*. The essay on "The Future of German Literature" has not been printed before.

For about fifty years, which cover, roughly speaking, the last quarter of the eighteenth century and the first quarter of the nineteenth, Edinburgh, rather than London, was the real centre of the intellectual life of the United Kingdom. The dominant figure, both in literary and legal society, was, for the greater part of that period, Walter Scott. In his "Edinburgh under Sir Walter Scott" (E. P. Dutton & Co.), W. T. Fyfe furnishes a useful supplement to Lockhart and the "Letters" and "Journals." He describes in detail the topography of the Old City, the gradual improvements, the exodus to the New Town, and the society and manners of the older generation, contrasted with Scott's contemporaries. Several chapters are devoted to the great Scottish judges of the eighteenth century, their wit, eccentricities, and too frequent brutality, men such as Stevenson drew in "Weir of Hermiston." The main incidents of Scott's career guide Mr. Fyfe to descriptions, well written and always interesting, of the men and manners of "mine own romantic town," the Ballantynes, with their fatal fascination for Scott, Constable, and Jeffrey, and many figures less familiar to the ordinary reader, though all worth the closer acquaintance that one gains through these pages. This is a book that will lead many admirers of Scott into fresh paths, especially, perhaps, to the reading of Lord Cockburn's "Memorials," an admirable study of the social life of the Scotland of the period, from which Mr. Fyfe quotes many entertaining passages.

That was a happy idea of Peter Rosegger's publisher to propose to the great German story-teller a selection of his narratives having to do only with the wonderful Abelsbergers ("Die Abelsberger Chronik." New York: G. E. Stechert & Co.), and an equally felicitous response on the part of Rosegger, who answered: "Do I agree to the proposition? Yes, indeed, if the man believes that such a little book may bring about some laughter among our contemporaries. For what is more necessary in the twentieth century than hearty laughter? For this reason, I have been going about a long time with the thought of founding a high school in Abelsberg, where one may learn laughing." The genial funmaker describes Abelsberg (which any child can find on the map!) as lying between the forty-sixth and fifty-fourth degrees of northern latitude, and the fourth and sixteenth degrees of eastern longitude, which seems perfectly natural, and suggests the idea that Germany has not only done much of the thinking for the rest of the world, but has supplied a good deal of its humor, too. What is of special interest in connection with Steiermark's dialect artist is that, realizing the precious possibilities in his experience as peasant and tailor, he has had the good sense to stick to the fields and his tailor's goose. It is thirty years and more since Rosegger, under the pen name of "Petri Kettenfeier," founded his famous national magazine; his works have expanded to thirty volumes or more, and the world is still laughing with the Waldschulmeister over the bass-fiddle war and the Abelsberg Katze. In 1902 a selection of Rosegger's stories most interesting to youth was published under the title of "Als ich noch den Waldbauernbub war," and the cordiality with which they were everywhere received promises well for this latest venture. For those most familiar with Rosegger and his village and mountain life, it may be noted that recently he was asked if Social-Democracy was threatening the regions of life hitherto regarded as remote from the humming mart, and that his answer is a serious affirmative, declaring that Socialism has long since pushed its way in among the valleys and the rocky clefts.

One can hardly fail to have at least a sentimental interest in a volume of sermons preached in the town of Giles Cory, Samuel Parris, and the Rev. Arthur Dimmesdale. The sermons "Concerning Life," by the Rev. George Dimmick Latimer, minister of the North Society of Salem (Boston: The American Unitarian Association), are not particularly aggressive, but one finds in them a healthful tone, a manly spirit, an utterance free from cant, and here and there a touch of more than usual cunning on some current foible, with a mild and gentle suggestion of remedy, as if the speaker were confident that to know a fault is to cure it, with his audience, and that violent persuasion is superfluous.

A large amount of diligent research is evident in the Bohlen Lectures for 1906 on "The Samaritans: The Earliest Jewish Sect, Their History, Theology, and Literature," by Prof. James Alan Montgomery, Ph.D., of the Philadelphia Divinity School (The John C. Winston Co.). As indicating the mass of material reviewed, it may be mentioned that the text of the Samaritan Liturgy in the British Museum fills 2,000 quarto pages, and this does not include many liturgical texts found only in Continental libraries. Despite his industry, Professor Montgomery does not claim to have solved the problem of the origin of the Samaritans. It is clear that they are a Jewish sect, differing from Judaism in location of worship upon Mount Gerizim, but as to how they achieved separateness we are still left in mystery.

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The difficulties of the common view, which is based upon II. Kings xvii., and according to which the Samaritans were a mixed race of foreign colonists with a syncretistic faith, are recognized by Professor Montgomery. The criticism of other Old Testament passages and of references in the New Testament is not thoroughgoing. The volume brings into convenient form a large amount of information hitherto not readily accessible, and is furnished with a useful bibliography.

In his Preface to "Before Port Arthur: The Personal Diary of a Japanese Naval Officer" (E. P. Dutton & Co.) the translator, Capt. R. Grant, states that he has made his version from a Spanish translation of a Japanese original. Having no knowledge of the Japanese language and without having seen the Japanese original, he cannot state "how far the Spanish book is an accurate version of the original work." The chances, are, however, that the Spanish expert did his original no hurt; for the volume before us is evidently one of a growing class of books dealing with the Russo-Japanese war which are produced under Anglo-Saxon skies and are attributed to non-existent Russians and Japanese, who are supposed to have written them while they fought. There is nothing in the volume that presupposes a Japanese naval officer as the author. The rapid shifting of the hero from torpedo-boat to fire ship, from fire ship to gunboat, and on to cruiser and battleship, impresses us as having taken place not for the good of the Japanese naval service but for the exigencies of the historian's rôle.

Prof. Camillo von Klenze's "The Interpretation of Italy during the Last Two Centuries" (University of Chicago Press), is intended, according to the sub-title, as a contribution to the study of Goethe's "Italienische Reise." The writer compares the "Reise" with its predecessors in the same field in the eighteenth century and with its successors in the nineteenth, in order to determine to what extent Goethe depended on the former, and has been enlarged and improved upon by the latter. The upshot of the whole matter is that Italy contained nothing for Goethe except the remains of Hellenized Rome, just as she had had nothing else for his precursors. In other words, Goethe in his criticism of Italy was at his best in virtue of what he had learned from Winckelmann. At Verona he could see nothing but the amphitheatre; at Rome nothing but Greco-Roman sculpture, the Forum and the Colosseum. Padua, Perugia, and Florence he regarded as almost beneath his notice. He admired chiefly in Venice that which she had inherited from the "divine genius of Palladio." His condemnation of St. Mark's reminds one of his impudent and ignorant depreciation of Sir Isaac Newton's physics. Dr. von Klenze tries to save his hero's credit by holding him up to our admiration as "the first traveller who attempts to understand various phenomena in Italy as products of forces," and by enlarging on the scientific spirit displayed in his observations. But the fact remains that Goethe in his conscious reasonings was never anything more than an eighteenth-century rationalist; and, among other things, his low estimate of Dante might have been quoted to show his utter blindness to the greatness of mediæval Italy. Dr. von Klenze's style and treatment do not, we regret to say, rise above the level of the doctor's dissertation; while there is too much cataloguing of details, and too little original reasoning and writing, some important facts are left out. For example, Ruskin is mentioned only incidentally. No account is given of those great works like the "Stones of Venice," which have been so influential in forming modern opinion of Italy. The author's language, as well as treatment, contains too many reminders of Germany. He constantly uses "dome" to mean cathedral. And we would suggest that words like *Zeitgeist* and *Weltanschauung* have by this time an unpleasant suggestion of cant, besides having perfectly good English equivalents.

The death is announced of Edmond Demolins, whose book, "A quoi tient la supériorité des Anglo-Saxons," made almost an international sensation. M. Demolins was director of *La Science Sociale*, and a prolific writer.

THREE BOOKS ON IRELAND.

The Outlook in Ireland. The Case for Devolution and Conciliation. By the Right Hon. the Earl of Dunraven. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

L'Irlande Contemporaine et la Question Irlandaise. Par L. Paul-Dubois. Paris: Perrin & Cie.

A Consideration of the State of Ireland in the Nineteenth Century. By G. Locker Lampson. London: Archibald Constable & Co.

Set an Englishman and a Frenchman to writing a book about Ireland, and which one will display the more vivacity, which the more plodding industry? No; you are wrong. It is the Englishman who has the *esprit;* the collector of facts is the French writer. Then pit your Englishman against an Irishman: which will produce the dull volume, which the witty? Wrong again; it is the Irishman who is portentously heavy, the Englishman who has eloquence, irony, indignation, sprightly turns, and all the Celtic graces of style.

Lord Dunraven's book has an inevitable air of being born out of due time. It was aimed to hit the expected Irish Bill of the Liberal Ministry. That was to be a measure of devolution, and the Earl of Dunraven, as a leader of the devolutionists among the Conservatives, might well think the day of his vindication was drawing nigh. But even as he was taking sight at the Irish Councils Bill, the Nationalists repudiated it, and the Government withdrew it. Yet his Lordship had pulled the trigger, and his book had gone off. It is a sober argument, from the standpoint of an Irishman who is both a Protestant and a Unionist, for turning over to the Irish a certain control over their affairs. The author follows the usual "heads of discourse"—economic, agricultural, educational, political. It is a moderate and rational programme which Lord Dunraven sketches, but, unhappily, time has made it untimely.

M. Paul-Dubois has been for some years known as a serious student of history and finance. His book on American railways, in 1896, was favorably received, and gave a taste of his quality. Now in his "Contemporary Ireland" he has applied the same patient methods of accumulation of fact, collection of authorities, with summary statement of his results. In this volume we have an historical introduction covering eighty pages; then four chapters dealing with the political and social condition of Ireland; four chapters more on the land question and the financial situation; finally, chapters on education, the Gaelic movement, economic regeneration, and the religious question. All is thoroughly studied from good sources, and M. Paul-Dubois has had the advantage of travel in Ireland, and association with some of her political and educational leaders. He writes with much sympathy for the Nationalist movement, though he believes Irish independence impossible, and has no hope except for a more or less restricted form of self-government. In actual remedy, then, M. Paul-Dubois is not far away from Lord Dunraven.

It is, however, Mr. Lampson's "Consideration" which is the weightiest and at the same time the wittiest book of the three. This writer is a master of easy satire. He even turns it against himself in his preface. He hopes for a possible maximum of forty-two readers to "skim the pages." "Twenty-two of these may be Milesians, who will condemn them, because issuing from a Saxon who is not a Home Ruler. Fifteen of the other twenty will be bluff Britishers, who will vote them anti-English and lurch by on the other side." This leaves only five at the outside in whom the truth may find a lodgment!

It is a combination of history, character-drawing, political discussion, and the evisceration of blue books which Mr. Lampson's volume offers. He is able to give a good sweeping account of a movement; to set forth the excruciating details of Irish misgovernment in cold but terrible array. He is a shrewd observer of men. There are characterizations of Curran and O'Connell and Parnell, of Peel and Gladstone and Disraeli, which one feels to be incomplete, and possibly unfair, but of which one cannot fail to be impressed by the powerful strokes. Mr. Lampson writes with a qualified sympathy for Ireland, but with an almost unqualified contempt for her English rulers. There are pages on pages of attempts to pierce John Bull's hide with sarcasm. "Ireland, without a doubt, was a wicked and ungrateful country. After a careful study of the best opinion entertained by her rulers, the author has reluctantly arrived at this inevitable conclusion." There is a passage (p. 103) on George IV.'s visit to Ireland almost worthy of Swift, and one thoroughly Swiftian on the amazing goodness of the English in keeping themselves so sleek and well-fed in order to make the Irish feel more keenly the ingratitude of their own starvation! The author's main contention is that the difficulty of governing Ireland is purely mental: that the English have never understood the Irish, and for that reason might as well have written all their statutes for Ireland on the sands of the seashore. But what would he himself do, at the end of his powerful demonstration of incompatibility? Why, he would build a tunnel under the Irish Channel, so that the two peoples might intermingle more freely

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and intermarry more often, and so solve the Irish problem! He has minor recommendations about university reform and land legislation, but his chief hope lies in what we have said. It is a strange, we will not say a pitiful, conclusion, for a man to arrive at who has led his interested readers along the same path trodden by Lord Dunraven and M. Paul-Dubois, but who shrinks when he sees where it is leading.

CURRENT FICTION.

Tinman. By Tom Gallon. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

Whenever a novel appears which does not deal too exclusively with the aristocracy, its admirers hasten to assure the public that Dickens has again come among us, improved and brought up to date! Many people professed to find this flavor in Mr. De Morgan's delightful "Joseph Vance"! The unbiassed criticism on the cover of "Tinman" claims that "in plot, style, and treatment, it compares favorably with Dickens"! It is well that this has been pointed out, since unaided no sane person would have discovered it. "The House on the Marsh" at a stretch—but Dickens!

Tom Gallon is gifted with the lurid manner. The clouds hanging over "The House of Usher" are as a dawn in June compared to the blackness permanently settled about Hammerstone Market. Even at twenty a young man might have experience enough to call in the police when his guardian went on so that "in all my life I never remember to have seen a man so suddenly become a wild beast as Jerry Fanshawe did then." Jerry ran about banging doors and blaspheming, "pulling at his lips with his long fingers. . . ." But he was not having things all his own way, since ". . . I had never seen on any face such a look of mingled fear and hopelessness and longing and misery as I saw in his face then." Although Jerry "clinched and unclinched his hands and moistened his lips and strove to speak," and also had that habit of examining his nails which is the primary impulse of every villain, Charlie had no suspicion of him (otherwise Jerry would have been immediately consigned to Bedlam or Reading Gaol, ending the story promptly at page forty-nine). As it is, notwithstanding an important manner, "Tinman" has only been strung out to store size by the ingenious device of repeating the heroine's adventures in the person of her daughter, merely giving a happier outcome to the fortunes of Barbara number two.

John Kendry's Idea. By Chester Bailey Fernald. New York: The Outing Publishing Co.

This is a lively novel of adventure without any of the sacrifices usually considered necessary in stories of this type. That is to say, although murderers, counterfeiters, detectives, villains, and cosmic Chinamen abound, and while events flash by so quickly as to keep a seasoned reader breathless, Mr. Fernald's own observations upon life at large are perfectly sensible, often amusing. Also his characters, if a trifle heavily emphasized at times, still talk and behave as real human beings might conceivably comport themselves under such startling circumstances.

The scene lies in San Francisco before the earthquake. John Kendry is a millionaire young man of aspiration, rather lost as to the means of realizing his idea which, at last analysis, is no more and no less than to be a useful citizen of the world, though rich. "He did not want more money, more power, more distinction than he possessed, yet he did not want to lose fellowship with men who were striving for those things." There is the American situation in a nutshell. He seeks equilibrium by attaching himself to an expatriated lady some years his senior, a lady whose brother hits her off as "A Europo-maniac, and that's the Americanest thing with hairpins. She turns round on her pivot and thinks she's an aristocrat. Well, you've only got to let her think she's made a morganatic marriage, and she'll have a sorrowing love for you all her life." Clearly, Mr. Fernald studies from the life and to some purpose, as when he describes a middle class American as being "Inferior to his clothes and superior to his manner of speech." His analogies are unfailingly apt, as when the strange sea-faring man complains "'A sailor was like a seal,' he said, 'he couldn't live always in the water, and when he came ashore to make his nest, they had him skinned before he was cold.'"

It is rather noticeable that while the author nowhere affirms that his hero is a young man of ability, you are immediately convinced of John Kendry's being both clever and agreeable. In fact, the whole book is an encouraging example of the neglected truths that stories of adventure and action need not be childishly immature, that contact with Chinese mysteries does not of necessity make a hero of fiction show the judgment of a puppy under nine days old, that cheapness and illiteracy are by no means essential accompaniments to epics of contemporary adventure.

The Imperfect Gift. By Phyllis Bottome. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

The imperfect gift is the handsome person and undying affection of one Ben Armitage, actor manager. Although credited with something of a past, this gentleman behaves in a manner far more suggestive of good King Wenceslaus than of Don Juan. In spite of everything, Marjory falls in love with him. "Everything" is what she learns from Evelyn, the day this beautiful elder sister explains to her all about Men. Evelyn has a well-worn rôle, to be handsome, worldly, successful, and highly contemptuous of other people's finer feelings. The Austrian Prince who falls in love with her at a ball exhausts this young lady's entire stock of romance. She refuses morganatic marriage, and secures a great match in one of those British peers who drink too much and talk like bus drivers. Marjory meanwhile develops from an ugly duckling with queer ideas into a striking beauty. A few quarters in elocution, and she is ready for the stage. One short season, on tour in the provinces, lands her as leading lady in London. Whenever the breath of scandal touches Ben, she nobly and devotedly breaks their engagement, and dismisses him forever. He invariably obeys, but turns up, unestranged, about the time she has reflected that her mission may after all be to make perfect the imperfect gift. The story is smoothly and competently told, and while its basis lies in the realm of mediocre, respectable fiction, the observation of detail, if a shade shopworn, is always sufficiently correct and agreeably expressed to make the whole fairly readable—if no better novel be at hand.

A Short History of Comparative Literature from the Earliest Times to the Present Day. By Frédéric Loliée. Translated by M. Douglas Power. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.

The English title of this work is something of a misnomer. M. Loliée has no pretension to trace the development of the comparative method as applied to the study of literature. His business is directly with literature itself—the written records of human thought and feeling. It is these which he attempts to recount, in accordance with the natural classifications of race and language, but in a manner to associate contemporary products as far as possible. In short, his ambition is nothing less than to write, however briefly, the history of human culture.

As a result of such a gigantic undertaking, confined within the narrow limits of 350 pages, his book is conspicuous for broad surveys and vague generalities. By its lack of close individual characterization and accurate detailed description it lies at the very antipodes of Sainte-Beuve's critical method. In this respect it appears, at first sight, rather amateurish, like the work of a young man whose views are wider than they are deep. At the same time M. Loliée is no novice. Though little known in America, he has written a volume on sophism and the sophists, "Le Paradoxe," and has collaborated in another work of something the same general character as this, "Écrivains et littératures." Vague and indefinite, then, as his descriptions are, mere summaries and *résumés* for the most part, yet many of them are not without a certain care for atmospheric effects which reveals at all events the practised writer, if not the exact and cautious critic. Particularly remarkable in this sort are the accounts of the end of paganism and the close of the dark ages. A brief extract from the latter source will declare the writer's style at its best, as well as his manner of handling his subject:

It is then we see them, a priest-ridden people, some in the still retirement of religious houses, lost in meditation or in prayer, suffering, raving, perhaps, in the dim light of the painted windows, eloquent of the Divine Life and Passion, a people of friars and monks, harassed by endless scruples and tortured by their own idea of the love of God. They were in a constant state of exaltation by their custom of meditating on the ineffable, and their souls were beguiled by mystical pains and delights, or by the troubles and uncertainties of a vague incurable melancholy which they named *acedia*.

In these broad and summary outlines there is something of the hauntingness of a suggestive and impressionistic poetry. In such instances as this, where it happens to accord with the nature of the subject, it is rather effective, though perhaps not eminently trustworthy.

At the same time it seems impossible that any one man should have read all

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these books, to say nothing of having made the circuit in his own person of all the ideas and emotions of which they are the expression. He were either too wise or too weary to write at all. It is not surprising that a good deal of the volume should be made up at second hand from the common stock of criticism. Brief as are the characterizations, they are seldom so happy as they should be. "In prose Guez de Balzac was one of the first to be witty and melodious, Corneille following Rotrou in drama, and Malherbe succeeding Régnier in lyric poetry introduced between them the great intellectual movement which was to attain maturity under Louis XIV." Of this sort of thing there is altogether too much in a *précis* where every epithet ought to count. No doubt it is undesirable that a work of this kind should consist of a string of epigrams. But it is equally undesirable that it should degenerate into a mere *catalogue raisonné* in which the commentary is only a *cheville* or device for filling out the measure of the sentence.

At worst, however, in spite of the rather patchwork character of the composition, and in spite, too, of a certain critical destitution, it is something to have all these matters gathered together in one place, where they blend into a single perspective. At this elevation, too, with the world and its history unrolled before his eyes, it would be astonishing if the observer were not occasionally favored with a prospect unattainable at a lower altitude. Of such glimpses and *apergus* it would be possible to cite numerous examples. Between Tolstoi and Rousseau, for instance, he institutes a rather unexpected parallelism. Of Germany he pertinently observes: "It might have been said of her, before the passion for military greatness had swallowed up her idealistic ambitions, that she was the India of Europe: vast, vague, with as many and varied aspects as her god, the Proteus of pantheism." Of Calderón he indicates what is probably true, that his drama is greatly overestimated through the influence of the Schlegels and the German romanticists. Suggestive also is a remark concerning the bent of the Spanish mind to archæology and political economy, for the reason that these studies are "so prone to illusion," "in that respect bearing a certain relation to fiction"—a suggestion which may serve to account for the curious affiliation between political economy and the modern novel.

The translation is not so good as it might be. It contains a few Gallicisms, as is to be expected—particularly "and which," and an occasional double negative. Most serious, however, is the abuse of the historical present, which even in moderation has an outlandish effect in English. Nor is the grammar always impeccable, to say nothing of a general flattening and reduction of the author's style, perceptible in the brief extract first quoted.

English Metrists in the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries. By T. S. Omond. New York: Henry Frowde, $2.40.

This is an interesting volume, of 242 pages, besides appendices and index, on a dull subject. The long series of books and articles printed in English about English metric during the last two centuries—what could be duller to most readers? Until a recent period, their authors had as a rule little notion of scientific method; their ideas of fundamental concepts were hazy, confused, and shifting. Many did little but blindly copy their predecessors, often without credit; others, perceiving clearly enough the worthlessness of previous disquisitions, built up new systems of their own, ignoring predecessors—to be themselves in turn ignored, often deservedly. From one point of view, it is a disheartening tale of confusion of thought, of the blind leading the blind, of slow and painful and partial emergence of light from darkness. At times the solemnity and "superfluity of cocksureness" with which fatuous nonsense is laid down as self-evident law become really amusing. How comes it, one asks, that on so important an element of poetic form, which ought to interest all people of culture, the English-speaking world has been so slow in learning to think clearly, or even to see straight. The structure of their verse presented to our fathers no more difficult problem than the structure of Greek verse presented to the Greeks. But the Greeks appear to have had as early as Pindar's time an established body of doctrine that could be taught to the young. Does our relative slowness in solving our problem measure accurately the inferiority of our race in the power of scientific comprehension of familiar and simple phenomena? It certainly indicates our relative lack of interest in clear thinking about the arts. A philosophic reader will see in this story of slow development, and of persisting misconception, a typical instance of the manner of human progress.

Meanwhile, Mr. Omond endeavors "not merely to enumerate and summarize treatises, but to trace the gradual development of sound views of verse-structure." Teachers of English—too many of whom seem now to have no interest in the subject—should add this book to their working libraries. Above all, no one should venture hereafter to put pen to paper on the subject without studying, first this volume, and then several, at least, of the treatises here summarized. From Joshua Steele's "Essay towards establishing the Melody and Measure of Speech" (1775), enlarged and reissued four years later under the title "Prosodia Rationalis," to Sidney Lanier's "Science of English Verse" (1880), five years over a century, real progress was made; and not a little has been added in the twenty-seven years since Lanier. Mr. Omond has at last made easy for students an adequate survey of what has been done.

Perhaps it is going too far to say that a candid reader can hardly fail to discern the truth in this historical sketch. Mr. Omond reports impartially, perversity bulks large; a reader may become confused unless he already knows something of the subject. Some recent statement, based on Lanier, but briefer, would perhaps be best for one to start with, as it will present a single system and from a single point of view. In his eagerness to present every system as sympathetically as possible, Mr. Omond seems almost to shift his point of view, and to keep his mind too open on some important points. For example, does he think our common blank verse is regularly in even or in triple time? Apparently, the former (see pp. 182 f.), which is wrong; but some passages leave one doubtful. Hence also he bestows especial approval on two or three authors who couldn't quite make up their minds on fundamental matters, and vainly tried to combine views that are irreconcilable. He has grasped the idea that rhythm, in English verse as in music and the dance and in classical verse, is wholly a matter of time and time-intervals. But occasionally he seems not to have grasped this firmly enough to realize that no doctrine can be sound that in any degree conflicts with that. Only by carrying that principle through—by observing how the mind and voice divide time in reading aloud the verse of good poets as the poets meant it to be read, and then stating in the simplest way what is the procedure of poet and of the reader's mind and voice—can a rational system, adequate and simple, be worked out. In his closing pages Mr. Omond is rather more uncertain than he should be as to whether a secure basis has yet been found. The difference between Greek prosody and English is probably best realized by those who know Greek prosody best; but a better understanding of Greek doctrine of verse rhythm would have made Mr. Omond's judgment surer on some of the problems of English rhythm. It would also have modified his form of expression in one or two passages of comparison between Greek and English.

But neither these strictures nor some omissions and slips and even misjudgments, which are inevitable in such a work, can change the fact that the work is carefully done, and is to be received with gratitude. American writers, from Poe's "Rationale of English Verse" (1848) down, receive their due share of attention and of appreciation; Lanier's importance in particular is fully recognized, and his defects are criticised fairly. Appendix A contains addenda to and corrigenda in the author's previous list of English quantitative verses—would-be quantitative, that is: Appendix B in like manner enlarges and corrects his previously published list of works in English dealing with English verse-structure. For the latter we wish he had given the entire revised list, though it is true the body of the volume includes all that is important. There is also a good index of names.

Madame: A Life of Henrietta, Daughter of Charles I. and Duchess of Orleans. By Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady). New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3 net.

On the cover this book is described as "Memoirs of the Princess Henrietta"; on the title-page inside as "A Life of Henrietta." It would be difficult to find a right name for it. "Life and Times" would classify it more correctly than "Life," but it belongs to a hybrid *genre*, being neither historical novel, nor yet pure history. Mrs. Ady is as scrupulous in going to original sources as any dryasdust historian. Her aim, however, is entertainment—instructive, no doubt, but still entertainment. Accordingly, she regards herself as free to indulge in unrestrained idolatry of her subject. This contrast between a minute, painstaking research which commands all our re-

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spect, and a (doubtless) sweet, but quite uncritical, abandonment of worship, is the keynote of her writing. In short, her work may be recommended to the seeker after diversion and to the historical student alike. Besides throwing into clear relief the political osteology of the period, she conveys much of its glamour and romance—the silken sheen and violin music of the grand monarch's court.

Her idolized heroine, the daughter of Charles I. of England, born in a besieged city during the Cromwellian wars, reared by her widowed mother in royal poverty at St. Germain and Paris, married at seventeen to Louis XIV.'s worthless brother, the Duke of Orleans, an unhappy wife, but, thanks to her influence over Louis, a potent sister-in-law, more potent still as the one person in the world whom her brother, Charles II., really loved and respected, Henrietta died after a useful, even brilliant career, at the unripe age of twenty-six. She was unquestionably a clever, forcible, plain, but coquettish woman. Not merely did she patronize Molière, Racine, La Fontaine, Bossuet, and others such; she *understood* them. And most likely it was this thin, hectic, brilliant girl, who, during her hot flirtation with King Louis, first taught the Grand Monarque to appreciate those men of light and leading. She also exercised a very considerable influence over international politics by furthering her brother's earnest attempts to establish an *entente cordiale* between England and France. She reminds us not a little in this dual rôle of a later English princess who not only encouraged art and literature at a foreign court, but strove in the teeth of a Bismarckian opposition to bring about closer relations between her adopted and native countries—the late Empress Frederick, when she was Crown Princess of Prussia.

It is a tribute to Mrs. Ady's honest learning to say that the clearest part of her book is that dealing with Henrietta's political activity. Here there is no call for special pleading, and therefore no confusing contradiction between the plentiful data offered by the author and the idolatrous opinions which she sometimes chooses to espouse. Henrietta's influence in this regard is open to no misinterpretation. She acted not merely as the trusted go-between of her brother, but as his guide in trying to bring Louis round to his wishes. Charles kept up with her an intimate correspondence, which fully proved this statement. And here Mrs. Ady gives us a rare treat. She prints for the first time in their original form more than ninety of Charles's letters to his sister. Singularly vigorous and characteristic letters they are. Mrs. Ady asserts that they are "of rare interest." They are indeed so interesting that they rather displace the centre of gravity of her book. Mrs. Ady gives comparatively few letters of her heroine's, and such is the superior force of the direct human document that many a reader, we imagine, will derive from these memoirs a more vivid impression of Charles than of Henrietta. Though not strictly germane to the supposed central theme of the book, we must quote one of Charles's letters, taken at random:

WHITHALL,
8 Sept., 1662.

I am soe ashamed for the *faute* I have committed against you that I have nothing to say for myselfe, but ingenuously confesse it, which I hope in some degree will obtaine my pardon, assureing you for the time to come that I will repair any past failings, and I hope you do not impute it in the least degree to wante of kindness, for I assure you there is nothing I love so well as my dearest Minette, and if ever I fail you in the least, say I am unworthy of having such a sister as you! The Queene has tould you, I hope, that she is not displeased with her being heere. I am sure I have done all that lies in my power to lett her see the duty and kindnesse I have for her. The truth is, never any children had so good a mother as we have, and you and I shall never have any disputes, but onely who loves her best, and in that I will never yield to you. She has shewed me your letters concerning your quarrell with the K., and you were much in the right. He has too much ingenuity not to doe what he did. If I had been in his place I should have done the same. The Chevalier de Gramont begins his journey to-morrow, or next day; by him I will write more at large to you. I am doing all I can to gett him a rich wife heere. You may thinke this is a jest, but he is in good earnest, and I believe he will tell you that he is not displeased with his usage heere and with the way of living; and so farewell, my dearest Minette, for this time. I am intierly yours,

C—R.

No reader is likely to form from Mrs. Ady's book a less favorable opinion of the merry monarch than he had before; at all events, he will get a very definite opinion. So much can hardly be said about Henrietta.

Mrs. Ady's mania for idealizing, while attractive no doubt to many lovers of the beautiful, has the fault of obscurantism. She shuts her eyes to the obvious more than once. Take, for instance, her accounts of Henrietta's personal appearance. Mrs. Ady is most reluctant to admit any blemish in her angel. But even though there were not plenty of portraits extant to declare the fact, it might easily be read between the lines of flowery court tributes that Henrietta's was in reality a somewhat unfavored physique, and that she had to redeem outward defects by charms of wit, character, and—may we add?—of coquetry. Mrs. Ady strives hard to evade any such admission. In her earlier chapters she withholds the least hint of it, and, later on, when she conscientiously quotes some evidence to that effect, she manages so to distribute light and shade that the reader may well be puzzled as to the net result.

The instance is typical. Whenever there is any possible doubt about the princess's perfection, Mrs. Ady turns special pleader. She quotes the Bishop of Valence as saying: "With all her divine qualities, this princess was the most human of creatures." But she does not accept the logical consequences of the remark. Allusion has been made to Henrietta's coquetry. Whether it was excessive or not, Madame certainly excited devotions from the other sex which call for a more searching explanation than Mrs. Ady offers. Her notorious affair with the Comte de Guiche was after all but one in a series. "Die Menge thut es," said Heine. The repeated occurrence of passionate victims of Henrietta's fascination leaves us skeptical of Mrs. Ady's account of a remote, platonic Psyche in a niche. We yearn for a last instead of a first analysis. And Mrs. Ady seems inconsistent with herself; she has to admit that Manicamp, the cynical author of "Amours du Palais Royal," knew Madame well and had "every opportunity of studying her." She also admits that Madame de La Fayette, the close friend of the princess, author of the "Histoire de Madame Henriette," smooths over some matters. Madame de La Fayette derived much of her information from Henrietta's own lips, but, remarks Mrs. Ady, "more careful of Henrietta's reputation than this princess herself, she often found it difficult to reconcile truth with propriety." It is scarcely doubtful that Manicamp was a liar, but then, apparently, so was Madame de La Fayette, even if in lesser degree, and on the whole we may fairly conclude that here, as usual, the truth lies in the middle.

The Church and the Changing Order. By Shailer Mathews. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.50 net.

The principal questions raised by Professor Mathews are, What shall be the attitude of the Church toward the new learning in philosophy, science, and biblical study? What stand shall be taken by the representatives of Christianity in relation to Socialism and modern social movements? What has the Church to say in view of the moral and social problems which are just now acute? That these are interesting and important matters, upon which light and wisdom are needed greatly, goes without saying. A sincere and earnest attempt, such as that of the author of this essay, to awaken appreciation of the seriousness of the situation should be accorded hearty welcome. It may be questioned, however, whether Professor Mathews has stated with sufficient emphasis the gravity of the problems which now press for solution, and whether his counsels to the friends of faith in the premises are anything more than an impossible compromise, in which neither side can rest satisfied. He would have the Church adopt the most cordial attitude toward the new learning, both scientific, historical, and critical, and yet he insists that "it has been its eschatological message which has given the gospel its grip upon human life"; he maintains that "any theology that is unaffected by a conviction of the reality of the risen Christ is not evangelical in the strictly New Testament sense," and the context makes clear his meaning that such a theology can not be evangelical at all. In other words, criticism must have freest scope, and must yet face the warning notice, "Thus far shalt thou come and no farther." We read that "no man under the influence of to-day's scientific thought can believe in any anti-legalism in God's relation to his world," and on the same page there is vigorous confession of a "risen Jesus, not, it is true, of ordinary flesh and blood, but of genuinely objective reality." It is declared that the gospel must be preached with primitive insistence upon the historic elements, and yet the necessity is maintained "of distinguishing sharply between the evangelic facts and the interpretation given them by people of the first century." It would appear that the demons, and the underworld for the dead, and angelic powers and principalities, belong to the temporary vocabulary which is done away, while the revivified personality who passed through closed doors and ate broiled fish and bread is essential doctrine which may not be relinquished except with the loss of Christianity itself.

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Similarly as to social questions, Professor Mathews maintains that he is not a Socialist, and that "Socialism is essentially an economic system and approaches the individual life with much the same presupposition as did the older political economy it assails," and yet he declares also that neither the labor movement nor Socialism is "exclusively economic in motive," but both are expressive of "proletarian idealism." The Church can no longer preach "merely an individualistic salvation," and it is "a serious mistake to think that the present crisis will be settled by an unmodified individualism." It is difficult to see how the "real fraternity" which Professor Mathews describes as the future state of society differs from the Socialistic state whose anticipation gives verve and fire to the harangue of the street-corner agitator.

There are a sort of men who find skill to stand on both sides of a question, and who maintain the attitude with becoming grace. There are many who applaud them, and declare that they are progressive yet sane, open-minded yet truly conservative. A warning was once uttered, however, on the peril of putting new wine into old wine-skins, and history affords abundant demonstration of the wisdom of the caution. Compromise has left behind a sad record of befuddled minds and consciences, and in the interests of clearness alone it were well, if we are to advance to a new order based on the bread-and-butter theory of the welfare of man, to take the step with our eyes open and under no misapprehensions based on old names for new doctrines.

The Whirlpool of Europe: Austria-Hungary and the Habsburgs. By Archibald R. Colquhoun and Ethel Colquhoun. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50 net.

Too many books dealing with foreign and international politics nowadays depend for their solid substance of dates and figures on Baedeker, and their interpretation of contemporary movements on a facile power of generalizing from scanty journalistic observation. In contrast to such examples of the expanded or diluted magazine article, it is pleasant to lay hands on a serious study of an interesting problem by writers who can bring to the task the essential historical perspective and a capacity for making the event of the day relate to what came before it. The authors of the present volume have succeeded in presenting within some 340 pages—in itself no mean achievement in these days of the 600-page book of travels—an entirely adequate account, from the point of view of the general reader—of the origin of the Hapsburg power in Europe, its vicissitudes in the course of centuries, the upbuilding of the present dual monarchy on a multiform racial basis, and the elaborate machinery by which the component parts of a conglomerate political association are held sufficiently together for their own safety and kept sufficiently apart for their own convenience.

The greater part of the book is devoted to a study of the many nationalities that dwell under the sceptre of the Hapsburgs; and undeniably in that phase lies the chief interest which Austria-Hungary holds for the foreign observer. In the bitter conflicts between Czech and German in Austria or betweeen Magyar and Croatian or Ruman in Hungary, there is involved not merely the fortunes of the races engaged, or of the great Power to which they belong, but the far broader issue of the future political constitution of Europe. Is it the fate of the smaller nationalities to be ultimately dominated by the more numerous races, to be incorporated, that is, into a great Pan-Germanic empire, a great Slavic empire, and a great Latin empire, or are they justified in fighting doggedly as they have been doing up to the present for the preservation of their languages, their traditions, and their local liberties, no matter how humble, in the hope that time which brings all things will also bring opportunity to them? The trend of present-day development would seem to be definitely the other way. Whether conquered and incorporated, or merely "protected" and advised, or annexed and "assimilated," the little state and the inconsiderable nationality have been disappearing before the great, unified Power. And not only that, but the instinct to oppress has manifested itself in races that are themselves the subject of oppression. The Poles who in German Posen are compelled to make sole use of the language of their conqueror in schools and law courts mete out the very same treatment to their Ruthenian peasants in Galicia. The Magyars who profess themselves the victims of Austria's ambition, are fairly unscrupulous in their conduct towards such subject races as the Rumans, whose kinsmen in independent Rumania show little mercy to the Greeks who, in turn, take their revenge out of the Macedonian Bulgarians. Swallow and be swallowed would seem to be the rule.

But, on the other hand, when we come to consider the very tenacity with which the petty peoples of Central and Eastern Europe have clung to their national existence, and, more than that, what numerous national renaissances, of varying importance, the past century witnessed, we shall be somewhat slow in predicting submergence for the small nationalities. The present volume, for instance, is lavish in its praise of what the Czechs have accomplished through self-help in regaining the upper hand over the Germans in their own historic land of Bohemia. So marked, indeed, has been their success that our authors have no hesitation in pronouncing the Bohemian Czechs the flower of all Slavic peoples, and in assigning to them the hegemony by right of that improbable Pan-Slavic confederation which in some quarters is dreamt of. Minute peoples like the Slovenes in Carinthia, Carniola, and Styria, or the Ladinos of the Tyrol, have revived their poor little dialects and literatures and founded schools and gymnasia and academies to preserve them. But far more important is the vast decentralizing movement which has arisen in the empire of the Czars. The various Russian revolutionary parties have not only had to take national aspirations into account, but have found in such aspirations probably the chief sources of their strength. The revolutionary programme contemplated a reorganization of the Russian empire on a basis of complete recognition for the cultural autonomy of Pole, Jew, Lett, Little Russian, Armenian, and Tartar. When a huge fabric like Russia can be shaken by the forces of national autonomy, it is too early to say that the day of the minor races has passed.

In contrast to the sympathetic treatment which Slav, German, and Hungarian receive in the present book, the hostile tone toward the Jews is strikingly noticeable. That anti-Semitism should exist in Austria is quite comprehensible, but that the Jews should everywhere be the unmitigated force for unrest and evil which they are represented to be, is improbable. Much, of course, depends upon the point of view; but that point of view is open to serious question when we find it solemnly asserted that the Jewish capitalists, having by their oppressive method given rise to the Anti-Semitic Christian Socialist movement, have sought to oppose to it the International or revolutionary Socialist movement, as it thrives in Germany and France. As a matter of fact, the Social Democracy of Europe has its bitterest enemies among the Jewish financiers and industrialists.

The Political History of England. Vol. VII., 1003—1660. By F. C. Montague. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $2.60 net.

Professor Montague's volume may be placed at about the average of those that have already appeared in this series. It is obviously, perhaps inevitably, dominated by the enormous labor and accomplishment of S. R. Gardiner in the same field. But it is careful, it keeps closely within the limitations set by the editors, and there is no serious fault to be found whether of omission or commission. Such criticism as must be made depends more on causes that go beyond the author to the editors, and beyond the editors to a whole school of thought.

And first let us quote from Professor Montague. He says: "Above all, the reign of James divides with the reign of Elizabeth the honors of the most splendid period of English literature. To that reign belong the later plays of Shakespeare and nearly all the plays of Beaumont and Fletcher, as well as the noblest monument of English prose, the authorized version of the Scriptures. The same reign witnessed the birth of a new intellectual movement in the publication of the *Novum Organum.* The King seems to have had little feeling of these marvels." But Professor Montague, with amusing naïveté, shows no more feeling than James I., for that is every word he has to tell us on the subject. Turning from intellectual and literary matters, we find that economic causes receive scarcely more attention, and so another profoundly significant side of the reign of James I. is almost lost sight of—witness the insufficient treatment of the Statute of Monopolies. To take another aspect of the matter, we are given a narrative that presents in proper sequence a condensed account of each one of the exploits of perhaps the greatest of English admirals, Blake, but there is not one word indicating the character of his genius or explaining that of his methods.

By such illustrations as these it is gradually borne in on the reviewer that although the high praise bestowed on this series in earlier notices must be continued, yet as the volumes accumulate certain deep seated weaknesses begin to show more con-

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spicuously. And the obvious enough answer that the editors will make is insufficient. If told that their work is narrow, they will answer that it is so because of a necessary limitation; that their history is intended to be exclusively political, that it is only on this condition that it could be brought within reasonable compass. This line of argument would be unimpeachable if brought forward by a single scholar; is it not, however, dangerous when brought forward by a group of scholars formed as this one is? With the president of the English Historical Society, and the editor of the *English Historical Review* at their head, and representing the strongest school of historical study in England, it is not too much to say, taking many other facts into consideration, that these writers and teachers are setting up something like a formula for historical writing, and a formula that is open to the gravest objections. Is the historian to be commended who gives us the exact number of ships Blake had at Santa Cruz because he has read the return among the Admiralty papers, but makes no attempt to paint Blake's character or to describe his methods because he fails in the necessary documents and the equally necessary historical imagination? Must a whole school of historians be drilled to write a mediocre style to satisfy the fear of rhetorical exaggeration or to level down to a proper academic standard? Are we to continue indefinitely the process of cutting down the province of history so that the historian, after losing all hold of economics, of law, of literature, of art, and of theology, can go on ridding himself even of biography? We are getting perilously near this when we are presented such an unreal, that is untrue, Oliver Cromwell as in this book—a Cromwell indulging in no practical jokes, delivered from the wart on his nose, and, more important, emasculated from those volcanic bursts of insight, energy, and temper that constituted his genius and make him the most forceful figure of English history.

Vancouver's Discovery of Puget Sound. Portraits and Biographies of the men honored in the naming of geographic features of Northwestern America. By Edmond S. Meany. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2.50 net.

This is a valuable contribution to the early history of the Puget Sound region of the State of Washington. For it gives, in addition to a reproduction of that part of Vancouver's journal narrating his explorations there, much information in regard to him and other persons. The editor, Professor Meany, has been successful in identifying all but a few of the persons for whom the prominent natural features of the Sound have been named, and brief biographies of them are to be found in his notes to the journal.

Of Vancouver himself not much could be learned in addition to what the account of his expedition, published in London after his death in 1798, contains. Even the date of his birth is only approximatively known. But "at what would now be considered the tender age of thirteen we find him launched upon his career as a sailor under the best master of that day, Capt. James Cook." He served under the great navigator in his second and third voyages, and narrowly escaped meeting the same fate as his commander. The latest biographer of Cook, Arthur Kitson, says that he was rescued by a chief. Vancouver spent some winters in the Sandwich Islands a few years after this, and a missionary there learned "that the natives loathed the memory of Cook, claiming that he and his sailors brought a disease there which developed into leprosy. On the other hand, those natives loved the memory of Vancouver." On his return to London, in 1780, he received his commission as lieutenant, and was in active service till 1791, when he was appointed to the command of an expedition. His instructions were to survey the western coast of America from 30 degrees northward, and he was also to represent the British Government at Nootka, where a Spaniard was to be sent to fulfil the terms of the Nootka Convention between Spain and Great Britain of October 28, 1790. In April, 1792, he entered the "supposed" Straits of Juan de Fuca, which is the part of the voyage, lasting four and a half years, with which this volume is concerned, and in October of the same year concluded his negotiations with Señor Quadra, the Spanish representative. His work as an explorer Professor Meany characterizes as "remarkably well done, and the maps are marvels for accuracy under all the circumstances. The observations of the soil, the climate, the trees, flowers, and birds are surprising when one remembers the newness of all to members of the party. Especially valuable and interesting are the recorded observations of the natives. Their houses, canoes, weapons, clothing, food, and language, all were commented upon in a way that will always prove of help to the student of these aboriginal peoples." The excellent English of the journal, which is certainly extraordinarily good considering the fact that it is the product of one whose schooling ended with the beginning of his teens, and whose reading must have been very limited, may be appreciated from this passage describing his impression of the site of Seattle:

> To describe the beauties of this region will, on some future occasion, be a very grateful task to the pen of a skilful panegyrist. The serenity of the climate, the innumerable pleasing landscapes, and the abundant fertility that unassisted nature puts forth, require only to be enriched by the industry of man with villages, mansions, cottages, and other buildings, to render it the most lovely country that can be imagined; while the labor of the inhabitants would be amply rewarded, in the bounties which nature seems ready to bestow on cultivation.

The journal itself is a very detailed description of the experiences of each day, the most interesting parts being those relating to the natives. On one occasion, Vancouver invited some natives to dine with him. On being offered some venison pasty, "they received it from us with great disgust, and presented it round to the rest of the party, by whom it underwent a very strict examination. Their conduct on this occasion left no doubt in our minds that they believed it to be human flesh, an impression which it was highly expedient should be done away. To satisfy them that it was the flesh of the deer, we pointed to the skins of the animal they had about them. In reply to this they pointed to each other, and made signs that could not be misunderstood, that it was the flesh of human beings, and threw it down in the dirt, with gestures of great aversion and displeasure. At length we happily convinced them of their mistake by showing them a haunch we had in the boat, by which means they were undeceived, and some of them ate of a remainder of the pye with a good appetite."

In addition to his notes and biographical sketch of Vancouver, Professor Meany gives an account of the early history of Nootka Sound, in which it is interesting to note that, as every vessel sailing under the Stars and Stripes came from Boston, in the Indian language "Boston-man" means "American." There is also a sketch of Señor Quadra, the Spanish representative, the negotiations with whom for the surrender of Nootka form the subject of the closing chapter of the work. If a second edition should be called for, we trust that a map of the Puget Sound of to-day may be added to the reproductions of old maps and charts, since it would prove a great help to the reader in locating historic places. The numerous portraits of noted persons add greatly to the attractiveness of the volume.

Das Leben des Heilands. Dargestellt von Gustav Frenssen. New York: G. Stechert & Co.

Just when there is an apparent ebb in the tide of hostile criticism of Holy Writ, and Harnack and others have receded from much that they at one time taught, Frenssen, acknowledged one of Germany's leading men of letters, and for ten or twelve years a Lutheran pastor in the established Church of Prussia, appears with a flat-footed unitarian conception of Christ, based, as he claims, on the discoveries of scholars and the changed attitude of the Church. The book is an elaborated and somewhat altered presentation of the author's view of Jesus given the world two years ago in the "Hilligenlei," and, to assure the reader that it is no mere fancy picture, Frenssen cites Harnack, Weinel, Schiele, Baumgarten, and other commentators as his authorities. That which strikes the attention at once is the dissimilarity of the diction to Biblical phraseology, the stamp of Frenssen's own picturesque style. Joseph and Mary are mentioned, but there are no disciples, no traitorous Judas, and no denying Peter. Neither is there anywhere mention of the miracles of Jesus, although his parables are paraphrased. It is natural, therefore, that the birth of Christ should be treated as an ordinary event, and it is perhaps equally natural that Jesus should be nonplussed by the questions propounded to him, and quite unconscious of his mission until touched by the enthusiasm and deference of the strange preacher, John the Baptist. "There were people in the village who questioned him concerning great things; but he looked down at the ground and reflected: it was too difficult for him to answer."

That which clothes Jesus with Divine attributes, which credits to him supernatural deeds and certain sayings, is but the accumulated myth of ages, piously gathered together by his followers, honestly believed

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by many. These Frenssen will reject, and with them the doctrine of the Mother of God, the Apostles, the Pope, and the mass. All these God has condemned, through science, to death. He will banish also the doctrine of the Trinity and the Fall of Man, the Eternal Son of God and Redemption through his blood, and the Resurrection of the body. These things make one neither happy nor holy. At any rate, they have nothing to do with faith, they are matters of knowledge, and perverted knowledge, which German investigation has annihilated. In their time, they may have been beneficial to mankind, but now they are obsolete and harmful. One thing that Frenssen is willing to acknowledge and appropriate of Jesus is his fiery, loving soul, out of which came the inspiring resolution: "I will love God with all my heart, and my neighbor as myself."

England and the English. By Ford Madox Hueffer. With Illustrations by Henry Hyde. New York: McClure, Phillips & Co.

In this book Mr Hueffer gives us a picture of England as she appears to one whose German parentage on the father's side—his maternal grandfather was Ford Madox Brown, the pre-Raphaelite painter—frees him from any suspicion of insularity. Having grasped the fact that very few English people can be induced to read a book about England, he addresses himself in a preface to Americans. Here is an antidote to the tour of the sights which leaves an American visitor far better informed about historical monuments and the homes of distinguished Englishmen than any English resident, but without any real insight into the lives and ideals of the English of to-day. To lack that sympathy is to miss half the enjoyment. Mr. Hueffer accordingly avoids all that archæological and topographical information which the English themselves never envisage, or only with a genial contempt for what absorbs the attention of tourists in general.

It is much easier to write about the famous streets and buildings of London and the men who have made them interesting than to interpret London's soul. What London means to the provincial immigrant, how he is assimilated, how ignorant the born Londoner must remain of all but his own corner in that vastness, how London works and rests, what London means to the poor and the middle class, Mr. Hueffer describes with great industry and sympathy. He has little or nothing to say of London at play, that favorite theme of two-thirds of this sort of literature. The "atmosphere" of all these countless industries and interests cannot, of course, be accurately reproduced in something under two hundred pages, but the spirit of the place where so many English live together, its sinister power, its great toleration, its infinite variety are conveyed to the reader in such a way that one regrets that Mr. Hueffer did not devote his whole volume, as Mr. Hyde has devoted all his illustrations, to the story of London life. In his studies of the countryside he gives us some excellent descriptions of types, always of the poor, and of typical episodes, such as country auctions, sheep-shearing, and the like. The whole makes excellent desultory reading. It is a pity that a volume otherwise admirably got up should be marred by so many errors in proofreading. Their number is inexcusable, and there are many cases where the substitution of words or letters makes whole sentences unintelligible.

Canada. Painted by T. M. Martin; described by Wilfred Campbell. New York: The Macmillan Co. $6 net.

Some of us know our Canada thoroughly in spots; others have a superficial appreciation of the entire country; but there are very few to whom the charming series of paintings by T. Mower Martin, R. C. A., here reproduced in color, will not come as a revelation. Mr. Martin's task has been a labor of love. It is the product of no perfunctory journey. To have seized so unerringly the distinctive beauties of every quarter of this great country, the artist must have explored it from end to end; from Cape Breton to Vancouver Island. The same brush has caught the peculiar charm of the old Acadian country around the Basin of Mines, with its quaint suggestions of a transplanted Holland; the rugged beauty of the Gut of Canso; the ancient capital on the St. Lawrence, with its crowding memories of other days and other ways; the wild scenery of the Muskoka Lakes; the rich coloring of the autumn prairies; the grandeur of the Canadian Rockies, and the almost tropical luxuriance of British Columbian valleys. This series of paintings, some seventy-seven in number, forms by all odds the most complete and adequate interpretation of Canadian scenery that has yet been published. Where all are admirable it is almost idle to pick and choose; yet here and there one lingers over a view that appeals with peculiar force, perhaps because of its power to bring back remembered scenes: an autumn road near the Bay of Fundy; an old-fashioned New Brunswick farm; evening mists on Muskoka; out on the prairies; Ross Peak, in the Selkirks; the Pacific coast near Sechelt; the valley from Rogers Pass; and the Illecillewaet below that noble peak Sir Donald, the last fittingly chosen as a frontispiece.

In selecting Dr. Wilfred Campbell, the well-known Canadian poet, to write the descriptive matter for this book, the publishers made on the whole a commendable choice. Dr. Campbell's idea has been to "describe the great natural features of the land, in its broader characteristics—its coasts, rivers, mountains, lakes and prairies, those physical beauties and sublime effects of nature for which the region is specially famous. With this he has attempted to depict the seasons, and the beauty of the Canadian woods." So far as these are concerned Dr. Campbell's contribution to the book leaves little to be desired. It is to be regretted, however, that in the effort to attain a completeness not essential to a work of this nature, he has entered into comparatively unimportant details, savoring rather too much of the popular guide-book. Dr. Campbell is not at home in this kind of writing, and the effect is to mar an otherwise effective piece of descriptive work. It leads him, for instance, into the error of naming Vancouver as the capital of British Columbia; and giving a wrong title to the Roman Catholic college at Toronto. These, however, are not very serious blemishes, and many of the chapters, notably those on the Lake Region, and the Canadian Seasons, form a perfect commentary on Mr. Martin's pictures. A perhaps novel feature of the text is the introduction of numerous descriptive passage from Dr. Campbell's Canadian poems.

Science.

The Dillenian Herbaria. By G. Claridge Druce, Curator of the Fielding Herbarium. Edited with an introduction by S. H. Vines, Sherardian professor of botany, in the University of Oxford. New York: Henry Frowde. $4.15.

The technical account of these three herbaria would not in itself be interesting to a general reader, were it not for sundry introductory notes and fragments of letters. But these fragments have the charm which clings to a great part of eighteenth-century science, and carry one back to the days when naturalists did not confine themselves to single and restricted fields. Dillenius was born in Darmstadt, in 1684, and was educated at Giessen. He early became a writer on natural history subjects, taking a wide range. In 1715 he discussed the American plants which had become naturalized in Europe, and next gave a description of "Cahve" (coffee); following this with an account of various coffee-substitutes made by himself by roasting certain seeds and grains. He insists that the drink from roasted rye was the best, being "with difficulty distinguished from the Arabian berry." Of course, after this, our readers are not prepared to think that Dillenius could be a man of much discrimination, but such, in fact, he really was. And, furthermore, he was what may be called a broad student. To indicate the wideness of his studies, allusion ought to be made to his special examination of the effects upon himself of opium, which he himself made from *Papaver somniferum* grown in Europe.

His principal work in botany was in the group of mosses and their allies, and his success in this work was so great that it attracted the attention of an English botanist, Consul William Sherard, who had brought back from the Orient a large collection of plants, and who desired to find a competent assistant. Sherard engaged him for this new task, and employed him also to aid him in a treatise on the synonymy of plants, and in the preparation of a new edition of Ray's "Synopsis of British Plants." But for fear that the name of a young foreigner might prejudice the sale of Ray's work in Britain, Dillenius was not mentioned on the title-page; consequently he received little credit for his labors. But he had already in hand a "History of Mosses," and from this he soon became widely and favorably known. The work was published under the title of "Historia Muscorum," and found its way into the libraries of collectors of various degrees of intelligence. For instance, Sir James Edward Smith had the delight of seeing a copy of the work standing "fairly lettered and untouched on the shelf of a collector, as a History of the Muscovites."

Dillenius had many annoyances, even af-

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ter he had accepted a scantily endowed professorship at Oxford. Many of the trials came from controversies with men less learned than himself, who had a happier manner of attracting attention, but he had also more agreeable experiences upon which he was pleased to dwell. One of the most interesting of these was a short visit from Linnæus, who was regarded by him at first rather as a disturber of things in general, but whom he came to know as a safe and friendly associate. Dillenius readily gave up the cumbrous nomenclature in vogue for the simpler names suggested by Linnæus, and this change was in itself no slight event. In the lists before us, the older complex Dillenian names of genera and species stand with their Linnæan substitutes. A few examples will indicate the sweeping nature of the substitutions. Papaver laciniato folio capitulo breviore glabro annuum, Rhoeas dictum, becomes Papaver Rhoeas of Linnæus. To Lysimachia speciosa, quibusdam Onagra dicta, siliquosa, is given the simpler name of Epilobium angustifolium. The binomial nomenclature of Linnæus constituted in itself a revolution. Concerning his relations with Linnæus the following citation from a letter of Linnæus to Haller is in point:

> You cite Vaillant and Dillenius whenever you wish to give an example of any faults. Who has avoided errors? Happy is he who has committed the smallest number! I would not, if I could, pick out the faults of good authors.

The first edition of "The English Flower Garden and Home Grounds," by W. Robinson (imported by Charles Scribner's Sons), was published more than twenty years ago. Each new edition has received new matter, and the author has succeeded well in his endeavor to bring the handbook up to the times. Of course a work like this is designed primarily for the great class of amateurs who have money to spend on the most delightful pastime and the purest pleasure in the world. To those who make a business of horticulture for the sake of gain, other handbooks are to be recommended; to those who love to plan their own pleasure-grounds and make their own choice of plants, this is one of the best treatises within reach. It is, moreover, written in such a pleasing style that it might even serve to wean from idleness those who now depute to professional gardeners the task of selection and care of plants. Mr. Robinson has done so much and such varied editorial work that he knows the value of a dignified and yet familiar treatment of his subject, and therefore makes his pages always readable, even when the matter itself is not very interesting. With the caution which seems hardly necessary, namely to remember that some of the statements regarding English garden plants are not applicable to our garden plants here, the book may be heartily recommended to all lovers of cultivated flowers. The volume of almost a thousand pages is fully illustrated with good engravings which are well selected. But we venture to hope that the next edition will not have the full-page illustration (149) in which an indolent or somnolent person is stretched near a bed of gentians, in a most unbecoming posture. Other units of measurement than a Brobdingnagian human form can be found, we are sure.

Louis Lapicque, lecturer at the Sorbonne, has worked out graphically the vexed question of the relations of the weight of the brain, weight of the body, and intelligence in the species of the entire animal kingdom. Discussions beginning with Cuvier have come to no certain conclusion. Taking the brain alone, the whale has five times as much as man. Taking the weight of the body into account, the ouistiti ape and linnet are superior to man. Gratiolet summed up the investigations: "The weight of the brain has no more importance for intelligence than the weight of a clock for its accuracy in marking time." M. Lapicque makes an ordinary table for logarithmic graduation: equal intervals horizontally, indexed 1, 10, 100, 1,000 etc.; and the same vertically. To this he applies the coördinates: for each animal the weight of the body gives the abscissa, and the weight of the brain the ordinate. The resulting lines are parallel for the same family according to the different sizes of the animals—for example, cat, panther, lion, or teal, wild duck, swan. In the entire range of the animal kingdom, these "isoneural" lines fall at different heights: fish and reptiles lowest; next rodents, birds, marsupials; then carnivora and ruminants; higher still, anthropoid apes; and, highest of all—distinctly above all other animals—man. The same inclination of isoneural lines brings animals of big body as well as big brain, like the whale, into the group of ordinary mammals. By this treatment of the body's mass in the problem, the relation of brain size with intelligence comes out clearly at last.

During the season of courtship and later, most species of snipe belonging to the genus *Gallinago* perform a remarkable aerial evolution, dropping from sixty to eighty feet through the air, at the same time producing a curious humming or bleating sound. This is common to species in all parts of the world and has been variously explained as vocal or by the action of the wind passing through the wing or tail feathers. P. H. Bahr, in the last Proceedings of the Zoölogical Society of London, has finally settled the matter, proving that the secret lies in the outer pair of tail feathers which, when the tail is widespread, are somewhat isolated from the others. By fastening these two feathers to a cork and string and whirling them around the head, the characteristic bleating sound is produced, this effect being impossible with the wing feathers or other tail feathers. In our common American snipe the outer tail-feathers are broader than in the European bird, and the sound produced is of much higher pitch. It is a satisfaction to have a world-wide phenomenon of bird life such as this, which has been so long in dispute, clearly and logically explained.

The Imperial Cabinet of Japan has just issued a work of great interest to the student of pathology, showing the movement of population in the empire during the year 1904, in 357 ample pages. Minute details of births, marriages, divorces, and deaths are given and the diseases classified under forty-six heads. Various other items regarding foundlings, foreigners etc., exhibit a passion for detail and accuracy, which enables the Government to know to a fraction the national resources. Compared with statistics of two or three decades ago, the decrease in the number of deaths from kakke, or beri-beri, is striking. Tuberculosis, meningitis (simple), and enteric disorders still show high figures.

Drama and Music.

The Development of Shakespeare as a Dramatist. By George Pierce Baker. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.75 net.

Professor Baker's book offers a somewhat more comprehensive survey of Shakespeare's growth as a playwright than has yet been attempted, inasmuch as it is not limited to the study of a few selected plays, but traces his development from the beginning to the end of his career. The first two chapters—on Elizabethan audiences, the peculiarities of the Elizabethan stage, and the conditions which surrounded both actor and dramatist—are introductory to the main object of the book, but they have a value in themselves, since they give sound information in a rather fuller form than has hitherto been accessible to the general reader. The author's experience in the revival of Elizabethan plays at Harvard has been of advantage to him in the discussion of the technical details of stage-construction in this period. Among other things, he very properly urges—what was often forgotten after the first discovery of De Witt's drawing of the Swan Theatre—that there must have been great differences in the arrangements of the various Elizabethan play-houses. It is also a valuable feature of the first chapter that our author endeavors to fix exactly what advance had been made by Shapespeare's predecessors, especially Marlowe and Greene, in the art of constructing plots. This relates directly, of course, to the main subject of the book—the manner in which Shakespeare acquired his mastery of this art. There is a certain drawback to all such discussion, inherent in the subject itself. For, after all, there is no norm in such matters. The variety of plots that at least hold one's interest is infinite. It is, no doubt, owing to this intangibility of the subject-matter that we have so few formal discussions of this aspect of Shakespeare's production, such as the present work. Different readers, however, will doubtless feel this drawback in different degrees.

In the chapters which trace Shakespeare's development as a dramatist through the successive periods, Professor Baker's methods and conclusions, it strikes us, are generally sound. But leaving aside the question of the authenticity of "Titus Andronicus," in which we differ from Professor Baker, we cannot but regard his minute examination of the dramatic effect of this play, scene by scene, as an instance of analysis overshooting the mark. As a matter of fact, in the actual production of the play not one person in a hundred would probably feel all or even many of these impressions of the closet. It is only the broad effects that a critic need concern himself with, and he may account himself fortunate, if he gains the assent of the

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majority of competent judges even as to these. Why, we may ask, should Professor Baker base so much of his discussion on plays of doubtful authenticity, like this, or confessed adaptations, like the Henry VI. plays, yet exclude from consideration "Measure for Measure" or "Troilus and Cressida," because of probable or possible collaboration? It seems to us, moreover, that distinctions between the different dramatic *genres* occupy too large a place in our author's mind. Among the English-speaking peoples, at any rate, such distinctions have never worried either dramatists or audiences—least of all, in the greatest period of the English drama, as Professor Baker himself recognizes. It is doubtless this tendency which leads him to advance the theory that Shakespeare ceased to write chronicle plays, because, owing to the ill-defined character of this troublesome *genre*, it developed on the one side into romantic comedy and on the other into tragedy. We do not see why such a theory should be necessary in face of the fact that before he had practically written any independent chronicle plays at all, Shakespeare had already produced a tragedy in "Romeo and Juliet," and a romantic comedy in "Love's Labour's Lost," not to mention the "Comedy of Errors" and "Two Gentlemen of Verona," which contain both comic and romantic elements—plays which, to be sure, owing to the author's immaturity, are in every respect inferior to those of his period of High Comedy, as Professor Baker has chosen to call it. It is more likely that Shakespeare stopped writing histories simply because the novelty had worn off plays of this kind, which had come into popularity in the days of the Armada. Besides, he had used up the historical material which was of most interest to his audiences.

We think that it involves a misconception, moreover, when Professor Baker speaks of "Shakespeare's desire to fulfil at one and the same time his own wishes as to characterization, and the wish of the audience for a story." If any such opposition had actually existed in Shakespeare's mind, he would have been much more modern but certainly a poorer dramatist, and he would never have been able to effect that union of the two elements in his plays which, as Professor Baker says, is perfect. The view of the relative unimportance of incident which is implied in these words is doubtless one of the things which have prevented our modern playwrights from creating anything of more than ephemeral interest.

In conclusion, we wish to commend the general sanity of Professor Baker's work and his thorough sympathy with his author. For instance, we breathed a sigh of relief when we found him confessing his conviction that Shakespeare did not intend Shylock to be a comic character. The illustrations constitute a valuable feature of the book. They embrace the most authentic maps of Elizabethan London, all illustrations that throw light on the construction of the Elizabethan stage, and many other things that help us to an understanding of the drama of the period.

Paderewski's symphony is completed save for a few details in the orchestration. It will be played first by the Boston Symphony Orchestra, and next spring in London. Paderewski's American tour, beginning in the autumn, will include seventy concerts.

Paris has so far heard only two of Wagner's Nibelung operas, "Walküre" and "Siegfried."—The other two are to be performed next year; Messager and Brussen have just made the arrangements with the publishers of the scores. The chief difficulty confronting the Parisian managers is that they have only a few singers who can do justice to Wagner, and no first-class conductor.

Apparently they are going to substitute the laryngoscope for the ear at the Paris Conservatoire, in determining the chances of a candidate. At any rate, a book has just been issued entitled "La voix, sa culture physiologique" by Pierre Bonnier, who is a lecturer at that institution, and who closes his volume with details regarding the results obtained by a clinical examination, by laryngoscope and otherwise, of the voices of forty-four persons. Of that whole number only eight were chosen, the others being rejected as having such qualities that no amount of training could efficiently fit them for a *carrière lyrique*.

In January, 1905, the Italian publisher Ricordi offered a prize of $2,500 for the best opera by a British composer. The successful opera was to be produced this summer in London, and the composer was to get in addition to the prize a royalty of 40 per cent. of the fees received by the publishers for any performance of the opera. When the Covent Garden season came to an end last month, and no prize opera was announced by Ricordi, some began to impugn his good faith. Inquiries showed, however, that more scores had been received than had been expected, and that some of the judges—among them Massenet and Hans Richter—were busy men and could not be hurried.

Art.

THE SEVENTH INTERNATIONAL; VENICE.—I.

The great popularity of the International Exhibition held biennially at Venice is easily explained. The show is not too large; the galleries are well lighted and single hung; the halls, being frequently decorated by delegates or societies of the exhibiting nations, constitute a record of contemporary taste in furnishing and interior design. Besides these features, a liberal extension of invitations secures a fairly high level of contributed painting and sculpture, while the management usually provides as well several groups of works representing the more recent achievement of prominent artists. This year Blanche, Mancini, Sargent, and Zorn are thus honored, not to mention such newcomers in the international field as Axel Sjöberg, Anna Boberg, and others. Finally, the pictures actually sell. Perhaps a third have found purchasers at this date, and often to the solace of a sale is added the distinction of patronage by Italian municipalities or royalty. No wonder that the more enterprising modern artists are glad to show at Venice.

International the exhibition is, however, only in a limited sense, and this because of the inevitable preponderance of Italian contributors. Obviously the artists of Italy have every convenience for presenting their works to the jury, whereas foreigners, except a few in passage, usually wait to be invited. So once for all the ungracious observation must be made that the deadweight of native mediocrity is the bane of the show. But since about 450 artists are present by invitation as against 148 who have passed the jury, the case is not as bad as it might seem. And concerning these competitive exhibitors, the jury, consisting of Trentacosta, Chitarini, Brangwyn, Dettman, and Bistolfi, give exceptional assurances. No work that has not seemed "the product of a true, intimate, and sincere feeling for art" has been admitted. The statement is probably no more misleading than are protocols generally.

The leading features of the exhibition, to the present writer, are the groups of paintings by three great technicians, Zorn, Sargent, and Mancini; the decorations of the Central Hall by Sartorio, the installation of the exhibit of the Austrian secessionists, in Hall VII., and the Russian exhibit as a whole. One should add, perhaps because of an evident intention to please or surprise, the new Belgian pavilion, and the gallery devoted to symbolistic and pseudo-imaginative art under the impressive title "The Art of The Dream" (*l'Arte del Sogno*). If only as the most ambitious work presented, Sartorio's great mural paintings deserve first consideration.

These panels cover the walls of the central hall, which is devoted to the larger sculptures. The room is a long oblong, with splayed corners and wide doors at the centre of the four sides. The longer walls thus afford four oblong panels, while the ends are so narrow, and the doorways so wide that only the two tall panels on the splays near the entrance are available for decoration. To effect a transition between the long and the tall spaces, the painter has introduced high flanking panels on either side of the four main spaces. In this manner ten tall compositions filled with caryatids in groups of three support the more pictorial oblong compositions. The subject is an allegory of life. Light, Shadows (the struggle with error), Love and Death are the titles chosen by the artist. In the first panel the new-born infant is shown attended by the Fates and the Furies, while below the Hours dance. In the second Youth as a mounted archer charges upon the forces of Error, while below float the ambiguous forms of the Harpies, Fauns, and Sirens. In the third decoration the forces of Chastity fight with Lust, symbolized by tigers and mænads; below are stories of pure and venal love typified by Psyche and Fortune. In the final composition the horses of Death preceded by Dreams rush across the field, while lower a stricken Amazon, mothers mourning their children, and women (the symbol of the renewal of life) uphold the higher subjects. From this inadequate account of these elaborate and highly symbolical panels it may be gathered that each is in two tiers, a very agitated group of human beings and animals being superimposed upon a quieter group, the figures being nude or lightly draped. This two-story motive is effectively repeated, but in severer form, in the

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ten tall panels in which a crouching male caryatid bears up a plinth supporting the erect and lighter figures of a youth and maiden. The relief of the figures is fully, at times almost brutally, indicated, and since the color is restricted to bistre and pale green, the effect is fairly sculptural.

Technically, I can hardly imagine a more unhappy scheme. Many of the nudes project so far from the picture plane that they have the appearance of being literally pinned to the wall; the whole impression is one of restlessness and exaggeration, and yet, with its obvious defects, the work is far from commonplace. It not merely is imaginatively conceived, but it abounds in individual beauties. The nudes, despite coarse attachments and extremities, are drawn with vigor, at times exquisitely. In particular, the tall panels present poses of great originality and impressiveness. In short, one must hail an inventiveness as exuberant as that of the old masters, while regretting also a possibly inevitable deficiency in taste and manual skill. I confess to finding work of this robust and original sort far more interesting than the tame and safe eclecticism of the followers of Puvis. In kinder times for the painter's art, Giulio Aristide Sartorio would probably have been a great decorator; as it is, he has perhaps achieved all that one man may hope to do, in a time when painting has broken with the sound tradition of the past. His failure, if we must call it such, is, after all, of the magnificent sort.

Mancini, Sargent, and Zorn are three names to whet the curiosity of the most jaded gallery-goer. They represent in various moods the latest and most brilliant attempt at a swift, synthetic, and luminous draughtmanship with the brush. Sargent and Mancini exemplify, as well, a distinctly personal and interesting attitude towards their sitters. Mancini shows no less than eight canvases, mostly portraits, in the Roman Hall. These studies have a vividness that is strange, when the arbitrary lusciousness of the method is considered. All the old mannerisms are in evidence. Not only is the paint loaded on in cakes, and the high lights stuck on by means of bits of glass, paint tube, silvered paper, or other studio sweepings, but these devices are generally used for the most trivial purposes—to give relief to a clarionet, to render the glow of an orange. Yet across all this affectation, one gets an extraordinary vital impression of reality. Take the portrait of Signor Otto Messinger, in a gilt chair against crimson plush. It is hot, garish, and uncomfortable, but it is an unforgettable evocation of a personality. In the genre portraits (fruit and flower venders), one notes again a modelling remarkable when the looseness of the touch is considered, a true sense for textures, and an atmospheric envelope that is none the less real for its tropical and romantic suggestiveness. We have to do with a very great talent, half obscured by whim. Whether posterity will even have the chance to judge either the talent or the eccentricity is doubtful. These pictures seem doomed to swift disintegration. One of them, The Musician, is already in a way to shed its paint, and the others will surely follow. As evidence of the anarchy into which the practice of painting has fallen, Mancini's case has a typical significance.

There is so little new to be said about Sargent's achievement that one would prefer to let his six portraits in the English section be read by title only. Learned societies frequently find this method preferable to a reading in full. But Mr. Sargent looms too large in the admiration of the laity to permit his feebler efforts to be slurred. When he indulges in such insipid prettiness as is displayed in the portrait of the Countess of Warwick and her Son, when his canvas lacks both tone and character as in the group of the three Misses Acheson, when he shows a tendency to elongate all his sitters to ten heads strong, the public should be warned that what amazes it is merely specious, and not even that to a sensitive eye. Happily, in the portrait of F. C. Penrose, the architect, of Gen. Ian Hamilton, and of Lord Biddesdale in hunting costume, one may see Sargent quite at his best. In a clean and forthright draughtsmanship that renders simultaneously form and character, these canvases can hardly be surpassed in our times. The more exquisite magic of the brush, the deeper sense of style, has apparently been denied this gifted and fortunate painter, but his manner has a rare exhilaration at its best to experience which we must go back to his greater prototype, Frans Hals. If one scrutinizes anxiously certain lapses in his later production, it is from a friendly solicitude. He is approaching artistic maturity, a climacteric which leads always to placid acceptance of the approved formulas or to new and higher adventures. One would rejoice at some hint that his mastery is of the sort that mellows.

Anders Zorn is so frankly and solely the consummate workman, that criticism is disarmed before the succession of splendid vouchers of craftsmanship that he unflaggingly presents. It is idle, because so obvious, to say that this workmanship ends where art begins, having no element of creation or imagination. And yet for the crowd it might not be superfluous to label all the Zorns: "Merely an Example of Magnificent Painting." It might save some puzzling over the meaning of these five nudes, so blankly strong and naked, beside their brooks or in their cabins. They mean nothing, of course, except that a sure hand has recorded what a piercing eye has chosen to see. There is no fine impression of art in any of these figures, indeed, there is no such intention; but how gloriously the specific, untransmuted beauty of muscle, bone, and pale skin is conveyed. There is something tonic about this work, as there is in anything supremely well done. Take such a picture as that of the nude Swedish girl who stands tense in the gloom while she holds a white bearskin to an open fire. It will at least serve to prove to posterity that we were not all duffers at the opening of the twentieth century of grace. Meanwhile, such painters as are seeking a technic will hardly find a better example than that afforded by the direct, precise, and potent brush of Anders Zorn. Something of the same impersonal attitude towards nature is revealed in the group of Arctic studies which Mme. Anna Boberg contributes, and in the wild fowl of Sjöberg. Much of this painting appears to have been done in the open air. It has remarkable actuality. Indeed, the Swedish room is the most livable of all, even if its austerity approaches dryness. M.

Finance.

THE STANDARD OIL DECISION AND THE STOCK EXCHANGE COLLAPSE.

The violent break which has occurred on the Stock Exchange since August 3, when Judge Landis imposed his $29,240,000 fine on the Standard Oil, will doubtless occasion wide discussion as to its actual cause. The extent of the decline has been sensational; thus, during the week which followed the announcement of the penalty, Union Pacific stock fell 17 points, Reading 12¾, Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul 10⅝, Amalgamated Copper 10½, New York Central 6⅛, Southern Pacific 8⅛, and American Smelting 14⅝. This decline continued with great severity at the opening of the present week. Standard Oil stock itself, which, for a day or two after the announcement of the sentence, held reasonably firm around its previous price of $500 per $100 share—a price regulated by its 40 per cent. dividend—has since then fallen with great rapidity to $421; a price, incidentally, which compares with $700 early in 1906, when the proceedings against the company were first mooted.

There had, it is true, been a considerable decline in Stock Exchange prices during the week before Judge Landis's decision; but the fact that the fall began with full violence on the very next business day after the decision was announced, has led to a widespread inference in financial circles that the sentence on Standard Oil was the direct and single cause of the break in stocks. In some quarters, belief is still held in the old-time tradition of a Wall Street "object-lesson," by which was meant the sale of stocks by important financiers, with a view to causing demoralization among investors, and thus proving to the public at large the financial results of an objectionable public action. More definitely, it was asserted, while last week's decline was going on, that large investment interests had withdrawn entirely from the market since the exemplary fine on the Standard Oil and the announcement of the Government's policy regarding prosecution of other rebate cases.

In short, it is probable that the market of the past week or ten days will go down in Wall Street history as a "Standard Oil panic," and will be cited hereafter as an instance of the market upset primarily by the action of the courts or the Government. Undoubtedly there is some basis of truth in the argument; it will be necessary, however, to look a little closely into the facts before reaching positive conclusions as to the nature of the present market. It will, for instance, be recalled that when the Government's suit against Northern Securities was announced in February, 1902, and again, when the Federal court in April, 1903, first pronounced its decision decreeing the dissolution of that merger, very similar assertions were made as to the damaging results of this Government action on public confidence and on the investment markets. The theory was not without plausibility, even then, because prices of stocks were falling sharp-

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ly in the early part of 1902, while in April, 1903, the so-called "rich men's panic" was beginning, and lasted almost without interruption through the four succeeding months.

Yet the curious fact about both 1902 and 1903 is that at the present time no one thinks of ascribing the action of the markets in those two years to the Northern Securities suit. Two reasons for this unquestionably are, first, that the cause at work on the markets of that period—over-speculation and over-strain on capital—became too plainly evident to ascribe the resultant phenomena to anything else, and, second, that in the face of these so-called adverse and unsettling decisions, the investment market proceeded to advance again with great enthusiasm as soon as other basic conditions were improved. There was a species of irony of events in the fact that the great recovery from the depression of 1903 began in the ensuing March, on the very day after the Supreme Court's final decision dissolving the Northern Securities. In the same connection it is only fair to recall, when the Standard Oil decision and the railway prosecutions are cited as the cause of an unsettled market, the fact that passage of the Railway Rate law in the early part of 1906, and the announcement of the Government's policy regarding the Standard Oil at the same time, were followed, not by any movement of the general depression and misgiving on the Stock Exchange, but by a violent and prolonged advance in prices.

It is therefore pertinent to ask, was there no other reason for the severe decline in stocks last week and this, except the action by the Government and the courts in the railway cases? Very few experienced bankers would fail to answer that there unquestionably were at work in the money market of ten days ago such influences as were bound, sooner or later, to cause very much such phenomena as the stock market has just been witnessing. The case was this: Along with the now very generally admitted deficiency in supply of liquid capital for investment in new securities, the position of the world's great banks, as shown by the weekly statement, had declined to an unusually low level. The statement of the New York Associated Banks on Saturday, August 3—the very day when Judge Landis imposed his fine on the Standard Oil—showed the smallest surplus reserve reported at this date in any year but one since 1890, and that one exception was the panic year, 1893. Not only did the surplus reserve fall on that day to a figure hardly one-half of the $14,000,000 reported at the opening of August, 1906, but the figure of this year's August surplus, $7,473,000, was so small as to make practically certain the disappearance of all the surplus over the required percentage of reserve to liabilities within a week or two, unless immediate relief were obtained from some other quarter.

Such relief might have come through increase of cash holdings, or through decrease of liabilities. But cash holdings, instead of showing a tendency to increase, were decreasing with great rapidity. This is the time of year when the agricultural West calls on the East for the currency to replete its own bank reserves, and to provide for payment of farm hands at the harvest. The West is entitled to recall this currency, for the sufficient reason that it belongs to the Western banks who had deposited it in New York during the winter and the spring simply because it was not then necessary in such volume in the West, and because the East would pay for the use of it. Sometimes such outflow of cash has been offset by import of foreign gold; on the present occasion, despite a fall in foreign exchange, we were actually shipping gold to Holland, and the slightest possible prospect existed of our obtaining gold, as we did last year, from London or Paris.

As for the question of liabilities, it will readily be seen that if that side of the account were to be sufficiently reduced, a large curtailment of cash reserves could be comfortably faced without impairment of the surplus. There are usually three ways in which such liabilities of the Associated Banks may be cut down. Loans may be transferred from the New York banks to other local or interior lending institutions; they may be transferred to European banks; or, finally, the loans may be cancelled outright—in either case with a consequent reduction in outstanding liabilities. Some relief may have been in sight, at the opening of this month, through transfer of loans to other domestic institutions; but it must be remembered that these institutions also have been under a heavy strain, and that their capacity to help the New York Associated Banks was more limited than in any recent year. And exactly the same thing was to be said of the foreign lenders.

Under such conditions, bankers looking to the longer future had to consider the question, what should be done by lending institutions in the East to protect their own position? At the end of 1903, and in the early part of 1904, decided slackening of interior trade released such sums of money as to provide abundantly for the New York markets' needs. At the present time, notwithstanding constant predictions of an impending trade reaction, genuine trade activity, and therefore the industrial use of money in this country, cannot be said to have relaxed at all. There was left the expedient of reduction in Wall Street loans through a fall of prices on the Stock Exchange, and when the market of the past two weeks is surveyed from this point of view, it will be difficult to admit that the fall in prices has not been logical.

However this may be, the indirect result of the break in stocks has undoubtedly been favorable to the money market. Had the New York loan account not been reduced at all last week—it had increased nearly $4,000,000 the week before—the loss in cash reported in last week's statement would have nearly caused extinction of the moderate surplus reserve. Instead of this, the week's liquidation on the Stock Exchange, with the resultant loan contraction, cut down outstanding loans, and with them outstanding deposits, no less than $16,000,000. The result was, notwithstanding a $5,300,000 loss in actual holdings, that the surplus reserve on August 10 was actually higher than a week before.

In other words, the forced liquidation on the Stock Exchange, and the violent fall in prices which accompanied it, were a normal sequel to the position of the money markets. That the selling movement has been emphasized by doubt over what the Government's next move will be, and particularly by the attorney-general's very indiscreet public utterances since the Standard Oil decision, is not open to question. Behind even such considerations, however, stands the fact that the fall in prices has represented the quickest relief for a seriously strained financial position. When the hysterical excitement which surrounds a convulsive movement on the Stock Exchange has spent itself, it will probably be discovered that a very much sounder general position has been reached as a result of it.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Calvert, A. F. Seville. John Lane. $1.25 net.
Celebration of the Seventy-fifth Anniversary of the Founding of Wesleyan University. Middletown, Conn.: Wesleyan Un.
Charmes, F., and others. Les questions actuelles de politique étrangère en Europe. Paris: Félix Alcan.
Dimmick, Ruth Crosby. The Bogie Man. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co. 75 cents.
Education Department of the State of New York, Third Annual Report. Albany.
Gates, H. W. The Life of Jesus. University of Chicago. 75 cents.
Elshemus, L. M. Nannie. Boston: Badger. $1.
Hall, G. Stanley. Aspects of Child Life and Education. Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Hodgson, E. S. The Leiçarragan Verb. Henry Frowde.
Kenton, Edna. Clem. Century Co. $1.
Kingsley's Westward Ho! Edited by A. D. Innes. Henry Frowde. 50 cents.
Lee, Vernon. Genius Loci. (2d ed.) John Lane.
Lee, Vernon. Pope Jacynth. (2d ed.) John Lane.
McCardell, R. L. Jimmy Jones. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. $1.25.
McCormick, jr., F. J. Four-in-Hand. Published by the author.
Mérimée's Carmen and Other Stories. Edited by Edward Manley. Ginn & Co.
Oppenheim, E. P. A Lost Leader. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Pratt, Ambrose. The Counterstroke. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1 net.
Rotrou's Saint Genest and Venceslas. Edited by T. F. Crane. Ginn & Co.
Tatlock, J. S. P. The Development and Chronology of Chaucer's Works. London: Kegan Paul.
Wallis, J. H. Youth. Boston: Badger. $1.
Weed, W. H. The Copper Mines of the World. Hill Publishing Co. $4.
Wooster, Lizzie E. The Wooster Juvenile Speaker. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.

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